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Leadership behavior of male and female coaches of women's intercollegiate softball.

Lau, Peggy L.

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Leadership Behavior of Male and Female Coaches

of Women's Intercollegiate Softball

A Report

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the Faculty of the School of Education

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Master of Science in Education

Dr. Al Merino

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by

Peggy L. Lau

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I would like to dedicate this work to my family and friends who stood by me regardless of how cantankerous and difficult I became.

I would like to specifically like to thank the following:
- My mother for her love and for not criticizing my grammar.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"I am the teacher of athletics. He that by me
spreads a wider breast than my own proves the width of my
own. He most honors my style who learns under it to
destroy the teacher." (Whitman, 1961, p. 98) Walt
Whitman gave a short yet simple observation of coaching
in his "Leaves of Grass" collection of poems. Things
have become much more intense and sophisticated today.
Coaches have fallen away from the ideals expressed in his
few lines. Researchers have measured all manner of
statistics and made all types of observations and have
used these to proclaim athletes, coaches, and programs to
be good or bad as a result. It would be nice to return
to the simplicity of Whitman's day and find a measurement
that is fair, precise, significant, and can provide
information as to how and where to improve.

In athletics, assessment needs are often met in a
"helter-skelter" manner, if at all. Many times the
evaluation is solely based on the seasonal record and the
intangibles are forgotten or never considered. Walt
Whitman's philosophy of coaching in athletics seems to
advocate an intangible, yet measurable, aspect of the

coaching profession. How well do coaches lead their
athletes? How well do coaches pass along knowledge? How
well do they teach skills? Can these aspects be
measured? If so, this data could play a major role in
the assessment of athletics. Men's athletics have been
allowed to go on for years with little or no real effort
at documented assessment. (Cratty, 1981) As women's
athletics began to grow in collegiate settings, some may
have assumed that data derived from men's programs could
be applied equally to female athletes. The question
arises: Can studies involving men actually be applied to
women athletes and the coaches of women athletes? Clark
(1974) noted that O. G. Ruble suggested that factors
which produced weakness in men's athletic programs should
be analyzed to help better prepare women's programs in
order to avoid the same problems. This would suggest
that it is important to look at men's programs as a
guideline for women's programs, but as Taylor (1987)
noted, cross-sex comparison is difficult. Such a
generalization across sexes cannot be made in light of
the studies cited by Taylor that profile differences that
exist between male and female athletes. Taylor concluded
that, "as a consequence, external validation across sexes
of a particular finding for males would require a
replication of the research involving females." (p. 12).

In the past, men's sports were coached by men and

women's sports were coached by women. This is no longer
a hard and fast rule, as men and women are now involved
in coaching both programs. Since coaches can have a
great influence upon their athletes, understanding
coaches' behavior should be a vital area of study.
Researchers should find out what the special relationship
is in the coach-athlete dyad and then determine why it
exists, what its ramifications may be and how it may be
altered for better or worse. The researcher should
examine how this relationship may be different for female
athletes and how data concerning this relationship may be
applied, equally or differently, to female athletics. A
good place to start improving either the athlete or the
athletic program is by improving the coach. The athletes
only evolve after the coach has evolved. The coach must
lead the way while teaching the athlete the skills
necessary to replicate this leadership role someday.
Coaches can teach athletes by example through the way
they behave and lead. The example set may be remembered
long after the practice sessions have been forgotten. By
studying the leadership and behavior practices of
coaches, researchers can accumulate data about the kind
of example coaches are setting for their athletes. By
understanding what kind of example they are setting,
coaches can make whatever changes are necessary to better
themselves, their athletes, and their programs. Espagnac
(1987) expresses a 1980's view of Whitman's ideology.

    The art of coaching may consist of developing an
athlete from the embryo stage to that of a "finished"
athlete. The doctrine of a coach must always be "first
the athlete, then the victory". All great champions have
stressed at one point in their career that their favorite
memories are not of winning but of the long months of
preparation, the effort made before and after the
competition. The dream of victory can sometimes be a
source of greater joy then actually winning. A coach who
is successful is one who has produced a new man - an
athlete - aware of his talent and his capacity but which
were badly handled. The athlete is grateful to his coach
for giving him inspiration and courage and for helping
him despite discouragements. The coach knows both sport
and athlete in depth: he thinks, acts, breathes and
speaks sport. Medicine, psychology, technique,
administration, physiology, public relations, equipment,
laws and responsibilities - these are all areas within
the scope of knowledge of a good coach. An efficient
coach will never be indifferent, but always involved.
Hidden behind a great athlete there has been, is and will
be a great coach. (Espagnac, 1987, p. 657)

    The coach must use every tool and means available in

order to mold the athlete. These tools take many forms,

and because they come in different forms, a variety of

tools exist for administrators and coaches. These are

used to teach and train athletes and evaluate and assess

programs and personnel. Some of the tools are great in

theory but impractical in application. The behavioral

questionnaire and leadership survey rank high in

practicality and usefulness. Cratty (1981) wrote that

the use of objective tools used to study and classify

coaching behaviors and the increasing number of studies

conducted in natural settings show promise. He suggests

that such studies "indicate that not only may coaching

behaviors be changed in positive ways, but that these

changes reflect how they are perceived by the (athletes) they coach." (p. 238) Cratty also credits the use of behavioral studies for helping coaches increase the self-esteem of their athletes.

Research into these behavioral tools was the direction taken by this investigator.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine if there are any differences in leadership behavior between male and female coaches of women's intercollegiate softball as perceived by the athletes.

Statement of the Hypothesis

There are no significant differences in leadership behavior between men and women who coached women's softball at the collegiate level.

Scope of the Study

This study was limited to the 212 female softball athletes in the fourteen college and university programs which agreed to participate in the study.

Significance of the Study

Coaches are not judged ordinarily on their leadership qualities, but on their seasonal records.

These data are not sufficient to provide real direction
in improving athletic programs. More needs to be done in
the area of studying coaching behaviors. Danielson
(1974) observed that many investigators stressed the need
for more research in "the domain of leadership and
personality in coaching" as well as for more information
on coaching personality and behavior that may "result in
new effective practices in athletics." (p. 323) He cited
an observation by Percival that called for "further work
assessing athlete's perceptions of their coaches'
mannerisms and methods." (p. 323)

Leadership is an important facet of every group or
organization that consists of people striving to attain a
common goal. This has created a great need for
investigations of leadership in its various forms and its
varied environments. Chelladurai (1984) wrote that
"Leadership is perhaps one of the most extensively
studied topics in industrial and organizational
psychology." (p. 27) He observed that there were many
leadership theories and models being studied and
proposed. One of his lamentations was that too few
studies of leadership in athletic settings could be
found.

> It is unfortunate and surprising that there
> has not been a more concerted effort to study
> the effects of leadership on athletic
> performance. Athletic teams are important
> organizations in their own right and provide
> a natural and yet manageable setting for
> organizational research (Ball, 1975). Further,
> any insight gained regarding leadership in

athletics also may be profitably used in other settings. Finally, the uniqueness of athletic teams is exemplified, among other things, by the almost total control and influence that the coach (the leader) exerts on athletes. The anecdotal accounts of the exploits of great coaches suggest that the field is rich with questions and opportunities for scientific inquiry. (Chelladurai, 1984, p. 27)

Through reviews of similar studies, as well as findings from this one, it is hoped that a better understanding of the intricacies of coaching, and especially of coaching women athletes, may develop. With greater understanding comes the opportunity to create better coaches. Better coaching should result in an observed improvement in the athletes they coach. Since athletes are the reason coaches (and athletics) exist, these same athletes should play a major role in providing data on the effectiveness of their coaches. Some may question the suggestion that athletes take an active part in this evaluation process. Others note that such participation is necessary. Cratty (1981) stated that since school presidents were assessed by their faculty and business managers were assessed by their employees, it only followed that athletes would be asked to "evaluate qualities of their coaches which they thought helpful and harmful to their performance." (p. 244) He continued by suggesting that the lack of such data seems to "reflect directions in which further research might be helpful" and the use of which may "offer helpful guidelines that may aid coaches to become more effective in their jobs." (p. 244)

This study affords athletes a chance to critically review their coaches. Such reviews are vital in order to provide opportunities for improvement in athletics. Some researchers have made the observation that athlete participation in the review process is important. Wisnieski (1980) cited work by LaGrand which supports this contention.

> The athletes, in this case, are quite important because, as LaGrand (1970) pointed out: 'In order to investigate the circumstances which pervade the successful athlete-coach relationship, and thereby provide insight into the kinds of behavior these successful professionals engage in, it seemed important to examine the judgements of athletes who are in a key position for providing useful information.' (Wisnieski, 1980, p. 6)

It is hoped that the respondents gained greater evaluative insights toward the coaching process. By so doing, increased avenues of communication may have been opened, through which increased cognitive, affective, and physical learning could take place. Participation in this type of research could also serve as a means by which coaches could evaluate their own performance in a quick and easy manner. Rather than wait for competitive failures by athletes to signal inefficiencies or personality conflicts to explode between two or more people, the regular or systematic use of such questionnaires or surveys may prove to be of invaluable assistance to coaches and athletic administrators. Alexander (1986) insisted that "evaluations of coaching personnel are as necessary in the education circles as

classroom teacher and administrator evaluations." (p.1)
Evaluative surveys and questionnaires provide avenues of
education and training for coaches. Education and
training provide insight into new techniques and
opportunities for evaluation. Evaluation provides a form
of feedback. Counselors value feedback for the growth it
can encourage. The greater the quality (not quantity) of
feedback received, the greater the opportunity for growth
and improvement. (Corey and Corey, 1987) Improvement is
one of the goals of athletics. Coaching education or
training programs are often based on behavioral
assessment and change. One such example is that of the
Coaching Behavior Assessment System (CBAS) designed by
Smith, Smoll and Hunt in 1977 and reported by one source.

> The findings of the study indicated that a
> training program can have a positive influence
> on coaching behaviors. Although there was no
> significant difference between the number of
> games won or lost by the trained versus the
> untrained coaches, the players under a trained
> coach evaluated both the coach and the team
> climate more favorably. Trained coaches were
> perceived by their players as more reinforcing,
> more encouraging, more technically instructive,
> and less punitive. Of perhaps even more
> significance was the finding that children with
> low self-esteem showed the largest difference in
> terms of positive attitudes toward trained versus
> untrained coaches. They also perceived the largest
> difference between trained and untrained coaches along
> the behavioral dimensions of mistake-contingent
> encouragement, punishment, and general technical
> instruction. (Bird and Cripe, 1986, p. 301)

Assessing behavior through questionnaires, such as
those reviewed and used in this study, was not intended
to be the sole means to an end. The results of the

questionnaires merely provided necessary data for
assessment to take place. It is the responsibility of
the coach to obtain these data, analyze them, and then
use this analysis to make whatever changes may be
necessary. This is not to imply that there are always
changes that need to be made. Some data may point out
progress made in a program. Some data may show coaches
where they stand with their athletes. Some data may show
where their programs are weak or strong. Evaluations may
even point out a potential crisis that might be more
easily avoided than cured. Bird and Cripe (1986)
reported that the use of questionnaires could indicate
the level of satisfaction athletes have in their leaders
and could even indicate sources of any dissatisfaction
present.

Why should behaviors be measured? What can
behavioral measurements reveal? Are there any useful
data that can be derived from routinely using behavioral
measurement tools? It has been shown that "Studies of
this nature have contributed immensely to the
profession's knowledge of student behavior, teacher
behavior, and the learning climate in the gymnasium."
(Lombardo and Cheffers, 1983, p. 33) Instruments
designed to measure behavior contribute to student
learning, teacher effectiveness, and interactions between
students and teachers. (Phillips and Carlisle, 1983)
They have been "effective in instrumenting desired
changes in their (teachers') instructional behaviors."

(Cicciarella and Martinek, 1982, p. 56) Silva and Weinberg (1985) cited that Smoll and Smith, using their CBAS program, demonstrated the potential importance of increasing coaches' awareness of how they behave, a key to changing their behaviors. There seems to be a wealth of data that behavioral measurements can provide to the profession. If these investigators have found such instruments to be of value in educational circles, then what can be said for their importance to coaches and their behavior in athletics and the measuring of this behavior? Will this shed any more light on the role of the coach?

What is the role of the coach in athletics? Smoll and Smith (1978) perceive the role of the coach as follows:

> In terms of the overall impact on the child, the coaches' role in teaching skills and techniques relevant to the sport in question may not be as crucial as the type of relationship that is formed with the players. The coach-player relationship is a social interaction, and like all such interactions, the responses of one person influence the responses of the other. In addition to giving technical instruction, coaches may be important adult models for transmitting attitudes and behaviors to their players. They also employ a variety of response-contingent behaviors that are rewarding or punitive in nature, and therefore should shape the behavior of young players. (Smoll and Smith, 1978, p. 174)

The importance of coaches to athletes, and thus coaching behaviors to athletes, has been shown here to hold a significant priority in the development of the athlete's growth and training. The studies showing trained coaches as providing positive influences on their

athletes and programs also indicate a need for studying coaching behaviors as well as for their identification and measurement. Can these behaviors be taught to present and future coaches? Cox (1985) summarized a collection of research dealing with coaching behaviors by concluding that "desirable coaching behaviors can be identified and conveyed." (p. 314) He determined that desirable behaviors could be taught to present and future coaches which could "result in better coaching and more desirable sport environments for young athletes." (p. 314)

Iso-Ahola and Hatfield (1986) put it another way. "The universal behavior theory of leadership posits that anyone can learn to be an effective coach once they learn the behaviors engaged in by such effective leaders." (p. 230) It might also appear that learning effective behaviors is necessary in light of research cited by Cox (1985) who indicated that past research in the area of coach-athlete interactions suggests there is room for improvement in this relationship.

It is often taken for granted that the goal of athletics is to produce the best end result possible, whether that be in terms of excellence of record or excellence of athletic performance. If this is the assumption, then it could also be assumed that the goal of a coach should be to provide the best, most efficient management of skills, materials, and forces at his

disposal. A predominant question seems to be how to
accomplish this. Becoming an effective coach requires
analysis of many factors. Behavior is just one of these
factors. Just as in curriculum designs, an action plan
of some type is needed by the coach.

> The coach who hopes best to lead a team, and earn
> the respect of athletes, is one who carefully
> analyzes the forces present in the situation and in
> the group relative to their needs to be dependent or
> independent. Also helpful, (sic) is for the coach to
> analyze his or her own need for control, and the
> capacity to give or receive affection and
> socialization. Following this type of analysis the
> coach should then formulate a plan of action, taking
> into account these forces. Further complicating the
> problem for devising a behavioral plan of action are
> the changes which have been refered (sic) to; changes
> in the needs of athletes, and most complicated of all,
> changes in the social and group forces found within a
> team from month to month and from year to year.
> (Cratty, 1984, p. 163)

Since coaches are involved in men's and women's
athletic programs, it is important to review and
understand what it means and takes to be a coach. It is
a complex, multidimensional position. When the coaching
profession is studied through behavioral measurements, it
is important to establish what the various dimensions of
coaching are since these dimensions, and how they are
handled or approached, determine the resultant coaching
behaviors. It is only when the coach at the top of the
'coach-athlete hierarchy' becomes more aware, better
informed, more readily accessible, and more willing to
work toward self-improvement will the athletic programs
in this country reflect that improvement. Investigators
continue to provide a means to discover the best and

worst in athletics. This is true in all areas of athletics from physiology to psychology. Such investigations are necessary to achieve the best end result possible, both now and tomorrow. Smoll and Smith (1978) advocated that the future of sport psychology depends on "soundly designed empirical investigations" as well as "development and testing of theoretical frameworks and models that can serve as a source of testable hypotheses." (p. 4)

The researchers can carry out studies, but until coaches follow through by the incorporating the results into their athletic programs, improvement will be slow.

It is hoped that this study will open new avenues of research and broaden the base of knowledge in coaching women's intercollegiate sports. The data may help provide guidance concerning how to improve coaching skills, perceptions, and preparation.

CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE

The review of related literature involved the search
for definitions of leadership as perceived by past
investigators as well as a study of the various models of
leadership that have been proposed. These definitions
and models were then applied to the coach as leadership
studies of athletics were reviewed.

Leadership

Studies of leadership have been in existence for
centuries. Some of the oldest descriptions of leaders
and leadership can be found in religious texts such as
the Bible (Numbers 11: 16-17, and Proverbs 29:2), The
Book of Mormon (Jarom 1:7), the Koran (Surah 2:247-249),
the Acalects of Confucius (Book VIII, verse 3), the Tao
Teh Ching (Chapter 33, verses 1-3), and the Dhammapada of
Buddha (Chapter XII, verses 2-5). All described the
leaders of their societies. They listed the
characteristics that these people possessed which made
them leaders. They did not make indepth studies of
leadership as a means to train others as leaders. It has
been only since the earlier part of this century that
leadership has been researched in such a scientific way.
(Stogdill, 1974) The purpose of these first studies was

to locate one single concept which would explain
successful leadership. Eventually, the investigators
reflected the many dimensions involved in leadership.
Hollander (1964) listed four objectives that these
earlier studies held concerning leadership. The first
was to look for some universality of characteristics of
leaders. The second was concerned with the level of
popularity of the leader who emerged from the group. The
third focused on situations or circumstances that
determined who would become a leader. The fourth
involved the interaction between followers and leaders
and the interplay between their motives and perceptions.

     Major researchers in the field of leadership have
been Cattell, Gibb, Hemphill, Coons, Fiedler, Likert,
Halpin, Croft, Brown, Wall, and Stogdill. (Stogdill,
1974) These researchers did much of their work on
industrial, military, and educational models, but all
could find similarities among the qualities of leadership
behavior in each group. One of the first steps necessary
in any study of leadership is for the researcher to
provide a definition for this term. Each author provided
his own preferred definition of leadership making the
selection of a single definition more difficult. Cratty
(1981) remarked that "innumerable definitions of
leadership have been proposed." (p. 233) He quoted
Fiedler, who had observed that "...there were almost as
many theories of leadership as there are psychologists

working in the field." (p. 223) Fiedler described

leadership as a type of influence.

> Leadership is an interpersonal relation in which
> power and influence are unevenly distributed so that
> one person is able to direct and control the actions
> and behaviors of others to a greater extent than they
> direct and control his. In such a relationship
> between the leader and his members, the personality of
> the leader is likely to determine to a large extent
> the degree to which he can influence the behavior of
> his group (Fiedler, 1967, p. 11)

Fiedler noted the complexity of defining the term.

In some respects, this reflected the complicated nature

of leadership itself. Is leadership a function of the

person and his personality, a superficial act that is

performed, or some type of influence possessed by the

person? Is leadership synonymous with supervision or is

it a distinctly different function? Hall et al. (1973)

referred to remarks made by Roger Bellows that clarify

this distinction.

> We see a large difference between leadership and
> supervision. Leadership is planning and arranging
> the situations so that the group goes forward in a
> shared direction to the satisfaction and benefit of
> all concerned. Supervision is something less than
> this: it is merely the act of relaying directions
> from above and seeing that the slaves do the work.
> It is a difference between participative style,
> which is creative leadership, and the autocratic
> style, which is merely execution, administration,
> management, or supervision. (Hall et al., 1973, p. 53)

As Fiedler (1967) had found, definition of the term

is complicated by the complicated nature of leadership.

This nature creates confusion, not only about a singular

definition of leadership, but in the subtlties between

terms used within definitions. Being as specific as

possible in terminology will reduce the scope of the
definition and hopefully result in a reduction in the
confusion. In one of the earliest studies of leadership
conducted in this century, Lewin and Lippit (1938) tried
to simplify the term as much as possible. It could be
said that they factored leadership into its two prime
components: style and behavior.

> It is important, first of all, that we clearly
> distinguish between leadership style and leadership
> behavior. By leadership behavior we generally mean
> the particular acts in which a leader engages in the
> course of directing and coordinating the work of his
> group members. This may involve such acts as
> structuring the work relations, praising or
> criticizing group members, and showing consideration
> for their welfare and feelings. Leadership style
> will be defined here as the underlying need-structure
> of the individual which motivates his behavior in
> various leadership situations. Leadership style thus
> refers to the consistency of goals or needs over
> different situations. Important leadership behaviors
> of the same individual differ from situation to
> situation, while the need-structure which motivates
> these behaviors may be seen as constant. (Lewin and
> Lippitt, 1938, p. 275)

Thus, it is seen that leadership style remains
constant and only leadership behavior can undergo change.
This narrows the search for a definition of leadership to
that of leadership behavior. For the purpose of this
study, Stogdill's definition of leadership behavior is
used:

> Leadership behaviors are any behaviors of an
> individual while involved in directing and
> coordinating the work of his group members and
> may involve such acts as structuring the work
> relations, praising or criticizing group members,
> and showing consideration for their welfare and
> feelings. (Stogdill, 1974, p. 10)

If leadership behaviors can undergo change, this change can be measured. These measurements can provide an initial baseline. From there, improvement or deterioration can be seen. By measuring these behaviors and showing how they can be improved through training and understanding, investigators have sought to provide those in athletics with a better understanding of leadership. With a better understanding of leadership, better leaders should follow.

Leadership Theories

The various aspects of measuring leadership have helped to produce several theories concerning what makes a good leader. Some leadership theories that have been proposed and studied over the years include: The Great Man Theory, The Path-Goal Theory, The Informal versus Formal Theory, The Leader-Environment-Follower Interaction (LEFI) Theory, The Universal Traits verses Situational Traits Theory, McGregor's Theory X and Y, The FM Theory, Fiedler's Contingency Model Theory, and Chelladurai's Multidimensional Model of Leadership Theory. Each of these theories presents a unique view of the leader, leadership behaviors, and interactions with followers. What exactly are theories and how do theories relate to people? The Coreys discussed in detail how people and theories relate to each other.

> A theory is not something divorced from the essence of the person; at best, it is an integral part of the person and an expression of the person's uniqueness. It is unrealistic to expect group leaders in training

to have integrated a well-defined theoretical model with their practice. This may take years of extensive reading and practice in leading groups. Developing a personalized group model that guides one's practice is obviously an ongoing process; the model continuously undergoes revision. With increased experience the leader develops new questions. Experiments are tried and clinical hunches put to the test. By talking to fellow group leaders, leaders can get ideas for modifying old practices to fit new knowledge. Good group leaders constantly question their mode of operation and make changes over time. (Corey and Corey, 1987, p. 8)

The ability to maintain an open mind about the different approaches to leadership may be a valuable asset. The Coreys continued as follows:

We are sometimes asked to declare what theory we follow. Neither of us subscribes to any single theory in totality. Rather, we function within an eclectic framework that we continue to develop as we practice. We respect the contributions that many theorists have made to the field. We freely borrow concepts and techniques from most of the contemporary therapeutic models and adapt them to our unique personalities. Thus, our theoretical orientations and leadership styles are primarily a function of the individuals we are. (Corey and Corey, 1987, p. 5)

Inflexibility seems to be an unfavorable attribute as far as deciding on the best leadership behaviors to pursue and use. If the better course is to select a mixture of the best each theory has to offer, then it would seem worthwhile to evaluate each theory and decide how to utilize its concepts.

The first concepts about leadership centered around the great men of power and prestige that are recorded in historical records. Early theorists thought that by studying these great men, an identifiable group of specific traits could be discovered that would unlock

what it was that made these people great. This effort
was labeled the 'Great Man' theory of leadership. It
contended that great leaders possessed superior
personality characteristics which separated them from
mediocre men. (Bird and Cripe, 1986) To this end, the
popular belief was that leaders are "born and nor made."
It was assumed that these particular individuals "had
inherited traits necessary for leadership, and developed
the ability to lead from intuition and experience."
(Kemp, 1977, p. 16) This theory gained favor in the
1920's, when personality tests were developed, and lasted
until the end of World War II. The adherents of the
theory felt that, since personality traits are relatively
stable, potential leaders would simply be identified by
the administration of a personality inventory test. (Cox,
1985) There have been many leaders in athletics.
Classic names, such as Rockne, Wooden and Lombardi, rise
to the top of conversations concerning great leaders in
sports. Those coaches were idolized and imitated by many
who hoped to duplicate their successes. They seemed to
give credence to the Great Man Theory. However, the flaw
in the theory came when a 'Great Man' moved from one
situation to another and failed to produce the same
results in the new surroundings. This indicated that
there was a situational aspect to leadership. Cox (1985)
suggested that "certain traits may lead to effective
leadership in certain situations."   (p.305)

He recommended that further investigation into the relationship between leadership traits and specific situations be done.

Proponents of the Universal Trait verses Situational Trait Leadership Theory contended that it was no longer logical to search for identifiable universal leadership traits, but rather to look at traits that were common in people in specific situations. Several investigators looked at successful leadership situations in an attempt to identify common personality traits, both positive and negative, found in specific situations. According to Cox (1985), "while there may not be a universal set of traits associated with successful leadership," it was possible that "certain combinations of traits might...be beneficial in certain situations." (p. 306)

Hile (1985) noted that coaching decisions are based on a multitude of alternatives that are present in every situation. The coach will respond, therefore, in any variety of ways depending upon his leadership style.

It seemed that neither the Great Man Theory nor the Universal/Situational Trait Theory could provide the answers in every case. There were too many exceptions to the rule. The discrepancies of the Great Man and the Universal/Situational Traits theories resulted in the appearance of Fiedler's Contingency Theory. This is a form of the Situational Trait Leadership Theory, which acknowledged that leadership was too complex to be

enclosed in one black-and-white concept.

> The contingency approach to leadership suggests
> that leader effectiveness is somehow situation
> specific, and that leader behaviors that are
> effective in one situation may not be in another.
> In a sense, effective leadership depends upon
> specific environmental situations. (Cox, 1985,
> p. 314)

As situational theories, such as Fiedler's, began to
be developed another concept was gaining momentum. This
concept moved the emphasis of leadership away from the
leader or situation and toward a group. This came to be
known as the Path-Goal Theory of leadership. This theory
placed its emphasis on the needs and the goals of the
group rather than the leader. The leader is more of a
'facilitator' who helps the subordinates reach or realize
their goals. The leader becomes more the 'selfless one'
who exists solely for the good of the group. Cox
presented that view succinctly:

> The leader's success is viewed in terms of whether
> or not the subordinates achieve their goals. Thus,
> the basic proposition of the path-goal theory is
> that the function of the leader is to provide a
> 'well-lighted path' to assist the follower in
> achieving goals. (Cox, 1985, p. 319)

This could be interpreted to mean that the best
coach (leader) is the "winningest" one. It could also be
conveyed to mean that the best coach is the one who helps
each individual athlete achieve his or her own personal
goals in athletic and life pursuits. This is the premise
of the American Coaching Effectiveness Program started by
Rainer Martens. (Martens, 1987) This program teaches the

coach to place the athlete first and winning second.

This concept seems to be more in line with Whitman's

poetic proposal. The coach becomes the resource person

or 'facilitator' rather than the 'iron-fisted' ruler of

the group.

The leader must analyze the situation in order to

identify variables to which he needs to respond. The

term 'facilitator' well describes the leader or coach in

the Path-Goal Theory. According to Egan:

> The leader is usually called a 'trainer' or
> 'facilitator' and acts, ideally, both as a model
> and a resource person for the group rather than
> as an authoritarian figure. He models the kinds
> of behavior that help members achieve the
> stipulated goals of the group. He also facilitates
> the examination and understanding of the experiences
> of the group. He helps participants focus on the
> way the group is working (or not working), the style
> of each individual's participation (or
> non-participation) and the issues that are facing
> the group (or that the group is not facing).
> (Egan, 1973, p. 11)

A variation of Situational or Path-Goal theories

evolved into the Leader-Environment-Follower Interaction

Theory of leadership. The Leader-Environment-Follower

Interaction (LEFI) Theory of leadership contends that the

effective leader is one who analyzes those deficiencies

in the follower's ability, motivation, role perception,

and work environment which inhibit performance, and then

takes action to eliminate these deficiencies. Wofford

and Srinivasan (1983) stated that, "The LEFI theory

accepts the basic position of House (1971) that the most

appropriate perspective for examining leader

effectiveness is in terms of the leader's impact upon the follower's performance." (p. 35) This theory more closely related success to the number of successful individuals over whom a coach has had influence. It breaks leadership success into individual terms rather than group terms. This, too, seems to closely resemble the thoughts of Walt Whitman. The LEFI theory appears to reverse the contention that there is no "I" in "team." Instead, it reduces the team to its smallest components - individuals.

The simplest of the leadership theories may be the Informal versus Formal theory which places the determination of leadership on the method of initial application. This theory is concerned with how the group came to accept the leader. According to Hollander:

> The acceptance of influence, which is conditional upon the consent of followers, produces 'emergent' leadership. 'Imposed' leadership tends to be determined by superior authority. 'Informal' leadership is an emergence form of leadership, while 'formal' leadership is imposed upon the group." (Hollander, 1964, p. 6)

Imposed leadership describes the situation where a coach claims leadership authority due to his appointment to the post by a principal or athletic director. Formal leadership implies the coach is the leader because he or some higher authority says so. Informal leadership has been delegated to the coach by the followers based on their respect of the coach's abilities and characteristics.

These resemble the authoritarian or autocratic versus democratic forms of leadership. In the authoritarian and autocratic forms, "authority comes from above without the consent of those governed." (Hall et al., 1973, p. 8) The tenants of the democratic (informal) form are rule by the majority with the advocation of the greatest good for the greatest number and the recognition of the personal dignity of all those involved. (Hall et al., 1973)

McGregor's Theory of X and Y is a complex leadership theory based on the concept that leaders should be employee--or athlete--oriented. Cox describes the theory in the following quotation:

> According to McGregor, one must adopt either a Theory X or a Theory Y approach to leadership. In Theory Y, the employee is perceived as being self-motivated and responsible, while in Theory X the employee is considered lazy and irresponsible. According to Likert (1961) and McGregor (1960), if one believes Theory Y and rejects Theory X, then it logically follows that a human relations approach to management and leadership is the only viable alternative. (Cox, 1985, p. 310)

The coach who follows this concept would either believe that athletes are capable of thinking and acting on their own initiative with little input from the coach or that athletes are sheep requiring constant attention in order to achieve results.

In the PM Leadership Type Theory, P and M behaviors are the base on which leadership is developed. This concept was developed in Japan as a result of studies done at the University of Michigan and The Ohio State

University. (Misumi, 1985)

The PM concept centers around the idea of basic
group functions. Numerous studies of small groups
and hierarchical organizations indicate that group
functions can be broadly divided into two
components. One is the function of contributing
toward a group's goal achievement or problem
solving, and the other is that of promoting and
strengthening the group process itself. The
problem-solving or goal achievement function may
be referred to as P, for performance, and the
self-preservation function may be referred to
as M, for maintenance. These functions can be
either positive or negative in scope.
Negative P leadership is leadership that moves a
group in a direction away from the desirable
outcome while negative M leadership is leadership
that reduces the social stability of a group.
(Misumi, 1985, p. 9)

The final concept to be reviewed is that of

Chelladurai's Multidimensional Model of Leadership. This

model reviews the positive and negative aspects of three

scales and, based on how these positives and negatives

are combined, describes the type of leadership along one

of four basic outcomes.

In this model, athlete satisfaction and performance
are viewed as the products of the interaction of
three components of leadership: prescribed leader
behavior, preferred leader behavior, and actual
leader behavior. Prescribed leader behaviors are
those that conform to the established norms of the
organization. Preferred leader behaviors are those
behaviors that are preferred by the athletes.
Finally, actual leader behaviors are those behaviors
that the leader exhibits irrespective of the norms or
preferences of the team. When there is congruence
between all three types of leader behavior, the
outcome should be ideal in terms of performance and
satisfaction. A laissez-faire outcome is predicted
when all three leader behaviors are incongruent with
each other. (Cox, 1985, p. 330)

Chelladurai implies that the coach is really three

people. The person he sees as himself, the person as

others see him, and the person he really is.
Combinations of these three perceptions multiplied by the
varying levels of intensity to which these perceptions
are received help to precipitate reactions in the leader
and the followers that produce outcomes in interpersonal
interactions. A person's ability to control this mixture
of perceptions determines the consequence and the outcome
in each situation.

It is important to study leadership theories in
order to gain insight into why leaders (coaches) act and
react as they do. The theories encompass the thought
processes involved. The study of leadership theories
allows both leaders and followers to gain a basic
understanding of leadership and to provide mutual input
into the selection and form of leadership they desire to
practice.

Characteristics of the Coach

Each leadership theory has an interactional
component. This component involves the leader, follower
and situation in some combination and with varying
degrees of intensity or importance. In athletics, each
person must view these theories in totality, keeping
suggested coaching characteristics in mind, to determine
how well they may fit into each person's unique life/task
situation.

The significance of being able to apply leadership
behavior studies to athletics and coaching lies in the

importance of the relationship between the athlete and
the coach and the role of the coach as perceived by the
athlete. Coaches should not be judged solely on apparent
leadership qualities, but on their ability to apply these
qualities and interact with their athletes in order to
provide for emotional, cognitive and affective needs as
well as physical needs. Neal recognized that:

> The good coach does not just happen. He or she
> must want to be a coach, and must be trained as one.
> A good coach should: (1) understand the workings of
> the human body, (2) know the best and most up-to-date
> methods for training and conditioning athletes,
> (3) have the ability to analyze and correct form,
> (4) have insight about how to best use personnel,
> (5) believe in the values of competition, (6) be aware
> of opportunities for personality development in
> sports, (7) have the qualities of dedication,
> enthusiasm, and initiative, (8) be capable of
> selflessness, (9) understand psychology, and (10)
> have a sense of responsibility to players and
> public. (Neal, 1978, p. 5)

In searching for all of the qualities that are
necessary to be a good coach and a successful leader, it
must be remembered that each individual has been given
certain qualities that must be used to this end. It is
not always possible to study other people's programs and
achieve the same ends as they did. Unfortunately, what
may work for one person cannot always be successfully
applied to another. Still, as long as studies are made
that compare athletic styles and programs, there will be
the possibility of finding a new and valuable source for
improvement. This must be, since all knowledge is not
inherent in any one individual and the pool of knowledge
increases with improvement in technology. In order to

keep up with this increase in knowledge and technology in athletics, research must be done and professionals in the field of athletics must put the results into practice.

The purpose of comparative studies was not so much to enable one coach to look at another program and try to imitate it, as to provide resource materials from which coaches could draw in preparing themselves to provide the very best in their programs.

Wardell (1977) noted that despite efforts by some less successful coaches to copy the leadership style of a more successful coach, the results were often more negative "than if the losing coach had maintained his own original leadership style." (p. 1)

It is this leader-follower or coach-athlete relationship that is the heart of any athletic program. It is a typical dyad where one party holds great influence and power over the other party. While the maintenance of a delicate balance is not altogether necessary, the fact that it is a dynamic relationship requiring constant monitoring and evaluation must be kept in mind.

LaGrand (1973) observed that "the relationship between player and coach or student and teacher has long been recognized as the key to success or failure, winning or losing, learning or wasting precious time." (p. 92) He continued by noting there was very little literature available that concerned itself with athlete's

perceptions about coaches. He thought this to be an oversight since "they (athletes) are the closest to the coaches and see them in their most trying situations." (p. 92)

The production or use of lists of "ideal" coaching characteristics has been a primary purpose of many studies. This was done in order to provide an inventory list that coaches may use to critique themselves. Some investigations have involved the polling of athletes. LaGrand (1973) used this approach. He polled 314 athletes asking them to rate their best ever coach. The results yielded fourteen specific characteristics. These included: (1) knowledge of the sport, (2) enthusiasm, (3) willingness to help, (4) demands for hard work, (5) interest in player, (6) ability to organize, (7) methods of teaching, (8) ability for personal demonstration, (9) ability to inspire, (10) understanding of the player as an individual, (11) use of discipline, (12) personal appearance, (13) use of humor, (14) interest in player's outside activities, (p. 92)

Other investigators surveyed the coaches themselves to determine what their perceptions of ideal coaching behavior and characteristics were. Some investigators examined the coach in action and reported whatever behaviors or practices were observed being used. Cratty (1981) wrote that certain coaching behaviors could impede the adoption of new techniques by coaches.

Loy (1968) found that the more sociable, flexible, intelligent, and self-sufficient female coaches tended to adopt the practice earlier than did those who did not possess these qualities to the same degree. Overall, the more than 100 male and female coaches from whom data were collected, and who were labeled 'early innovators' were found to be more creative, cosmopolitan, and higher in professional and educational status than those who did not quickly adopt the new and helpful practice. These data thus suggest that extreme rigidity and inflexibility in the behavior of at least some coaches may serve as an impediment to the adoption of new coaching practices. (Cratty, 1981, p. 237)

It is also necessary to take the situational aspects of coaching into account as far as the sport or type of sport involved. This may determine the type of leadership behaviors that athletes prefer or that coaches need to exhibit. It must be remembered that individuals are coached just as individuals coach. While not always practical, theoretically a coach should have a separate coaching plan for each individual athlete. This plan would be based on that athlete's needs, personality, experience, and goals.

The coach's behavior is a function of his/her own personal characteristics (personality, ability, experience, etc.) as well as the influences of the situations in which he/she operates.
Since both the athlete and the coach operate in the same environment, it can influence the coach as well as the athlete. It was found that within interdependent sports (basketball, football, hockey, and volleyball), successful coaches were perceived to be higher on coordinating, exercising their leadership role, and emphasizing production than were the coaches of losing teams. Within the independent sports (swimming, track and field, golf, wrestling), however, successful coaches were perceived to be more concerned with maintaining a closely knit group and resolving conflicts than were unsuccessful coaches. Furthermore, successful coaches in interdependent sports, as compared to successful coaches in

independent sports, were perceived as displaying more
role clarification, integrating group function,
exercising leadership role, and placing greater
emphasis on production. These coaches also showed
less tolerance for athletes' freedom and less
concern for their comfort and well-being. (Silva
and Weinberg, 1984, p. 335)

Since each decision made by the coaches will be in
response to a set of circumstances in a given situation,
their particular leadership style will direct what this
decision will be. It is important for the coach to be
his/her own person when directing his/her team's efforts.
(Hile, 1985) Behaviors identify types of leadership.
The coach must learn what these behaviors are and monitor
them in order to be the most effective leader for the
team.

Measurement of coaching (leadership) behaviors can
provide much data for researchers. Many instruments
exist for gathering data about various forms of
leadership in various situations and environments. These
instruments were reviewed thoroughly.

Measurement of Behaviors

Types of Instruments

Various instruments have been used to identify and
measure behavioral characteristics. Each instrument was
developed to meet and measure certain criteria. These
criteria were based on the researcher's concepts of
behavior or leadership. Hill (1978) discussed a few of
the problems this has created.

There were several broad areas which have been
investigated. One prevalent area of investigation

has been the identification of the personality
traits of a variety of sports participants, both
team and individual sports. Results of some of
the studies by Kane and Callaghan (1966),
Lakie (1962), Johnson (1972), Gold (1955), Kroll
and Carlson (1967), Booth (1958), Bosco (1962),
Flanagan (1951), Malumphy (1968), Knapp (1965),
and Peterson et al. (1967) were, for the most
part, contradictory and inconclusive. A
partial reason for such contradictory results
has been attributed to two factors. The first
was a variety of instruments used. Although the
majority of instruments used measured stable
traits, each instrument measured traits which
were not always comparable across instruments.
The second factor which has caused contradictory
results has been the differing skill levels and
variance in the athlete populations that were
used. (Hill, 1978)

A list of the variety of instruments employed and

the researchers using them include: The Emotionality,

Activity, Sociability and Impulsivity III (EASI III)

Survey (Hill 1978); Critical Incident Survey Technique

(Jones 1975); the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations

Orientation-Behavior (FIRO-B) Scale (Carron and Bennett

(1977) and Horne and Carron (1985)); the Youth Self

Description Questionnaire (Stein 1979); Cattell's 16

Personality Factor (Cattell's 16 pf) Questionnaire (Gates

(1972), Hendry (1969) and Nelson (1966)); the Osgood

Semantic Differential (Clark (1974), LaGrand (1970) and

Evans (1978)); the Likert Scale (Steinbrecher et al.

(1978) and Tamsberg (1978)); the Lease Preferred Co-

Worker (LPC) Scale (Wardell (1977), Lewis (1978) and

Young (1981)); the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS)

(Hile (1985), Schliesman (1987) and Chelladurai and Saleh

(1980)); the Leadership Potential Inventory (LPI) used by

Dua (cited by Walter, 1968); the Flanders' Interaction

Analysis System (FIAS) (Flanders 1970); The Cheffers

Adaptation of the Flanders' Interaction Analysis System

(CAFIAS) created by Lombardo et al. (1983); The Dyadic

Adaptation of the Cheffers Adaptation of the Flanders'

Interaction Analysis System (DAC) produced by Cicciarella

et al. (1982); the Mach Scale used by Sage (cited by Iso-

Ahola and Hatfield 1986); the Coach Behavior Description

Questionnaire (CBDQ) by Danielson (1974); the Leadership

Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) by Rath (1983),

Kemp (1977) and Wisnieski (1980); and other types of

questionnaires such as those used by Brandt and Elam

(1987), Booth (1958) and Alexander (1986). The variety

of surveys, survey techniques, administration methods,

subjects and conclusions can pose a dilemma for those

studying leadership behaviors in the athletics arena. It

may help to observe the use of some of the instruments in

different environments before viewing their use in

athletics.

Types of Environments Studied

Some areas where leadership studies have been done

include the fields of business, education and athletics.

(Stogdill, 1974) There are no restrictions on

environments or situations where such tools may be used,

just as there are no restrictions as to where leaders or

leadership behaviors may be found. Several researchers

have used investigative tools to identify and measure

leader behaviors in education. Twenty-one studies of leadership within the academic ranks have been found in the literature. The instruments used in these twenty-one studies measured the specific behaviors and characteristics targeted by the researchers.

Educational leadership research includes investigation of physical education departments or deans of community colleges {D. Buckiewicz (1974) and Cox (1973)}, teaching behaviors at various levels of education {Daniel (1983), Walter (1986), Smith and Lutz (1964), Brown (1980), Lombardo et al. (1083), Phillips et al. (1983), and Mancini et al. (1980)}, physical education administrators at various educational levels {Lumley (1971), Kemp (1977), Falmer (1982), Milner (1976), Waldenberger (1975), Meyer (1984), and Johnson (1982)}, deans of junior colleges and law schools {Carson (1962), Verbeke (1966), and Johns (1986)}, and student evaluations of physical education programs {Avery et al. (1987)}.

D. Buckiewicz (1974) used the LBDQ-XII to compare perceptions of community college faculty and department chairmen on twelve dimensions of leader behavior. Perceptions of the male and female faculty and the male and female leaders differed on certain leadership dimensions. The perceptions of male and female faculty with male leaders differed in the initiating structure, production emphasis, integration, persuasiveness,

consideration, and superior orientation dimensions. Male
and female faculty with female leaders did not differ
significantly. It was also found that leader maturity,
years of administrative experience, amount of leadership
educational course work, and school enrollment played
roles in differences in perception.

Milner (1976) also used the LBDQ to study and
compare leadership behaviors of male and female heads of
physical education departments in major colleges and
universities. The purpose of the study was to determine
if differences existed between the real and ideal
leadership behavior of male and female department heads
as described by themselves and by their faculties. There
were no significant differences in the real initiating
structure and consideration scores of male and female
department heads as described by their faculties.

Kemp (1977) investigated the perceptions of 129
physical educators toward the leadership behavior of
women physical education administrators in eight colleges
and universities. A sixty-four item Q-sort
questionnaire, based on Stogdill's concept of leader
behavior, was used to survey the subjects. Scores were
divided into the dimensions of consideration and
initiating structure and their respective subcategories.
The results indicated that there were no significant
differences between subcategories of leadership,
statement orientation, subcategories by statement

orientation, and subcategories by statement orientation with sex as an added factor or between orientations with sex as a main effect.

Lombardo and Cheffers (1983) observed four elementary school physical education teachers (two male and two female) twice daily over a period of twenty consecutive teaching days. Their purpose was to observe and describe the teaching behavior and interaction patterns of elementary school physical education teachers with secondary concerns dealing with the influence of the time of day of the class, the day of the week of the class, grade level of the class, and the content of the lesson on teacher behavior and interaction in the gymnasium. Observers used the Cheffers Adaptation of the Flanders' Interaction Analysis System (CAFIAS) to code and tally behaviors. One hundred and sixty individual observations were completed and 810 CAFIAS sheets were produced containing 112,054 individual tallies. The results were compared to fifty-one CAFIAS parameters to determine significant differences in behavior. Only two of the fifty-one parameters demonstrated significant fluctuation on a day-to-day basis indicating that teacher behavior remained stable over time. This showed that teachers determine a personally comfortable style of teaching and habitually behave in this manner for all groups. The variables of time of day, grade level, and day of the week of the class had a negligible influence

on the teaching behavior and interaction in the physical
education classes. The content of the lesson did
influence behavior and interaction as teachers varied
their behavior from teaching unit to teaching unit.

Phillips and Carlisle (1983) looked at the Physical
Education Teacher Assessment Instrument (PETI) as a
possible method to study behavior and enhance student
achievement. The PETI consists of three teacher and
three student behavior categories that help determine the
teacher's ability to analyze student needs, teacher's
management abilities, and instruction time utilization,
as well as the student's skill learning time, management
time, and achievement gains. The validity and
reliability of the instrument were established and data
were collected on eighteen physical education teachers
who instructed ten-lesson units in volleyball to fifth
through eighth graders. The results indicated that use
of the PETI can enhance the teacher's ability to analyze
student needs and students' engaged learning skill time
and achievement.

Questionnaire Use in Athletics

Use of the questionnaire in athletics can be a
worthwhile undertaking. Questionnaires can be simple
demography forms used to locate common bonds between
individuals which may help to create some initial
cohesion within the group. They may also point out
strengths and weaknesses in a program so that they may

be, respectively, explored or expunged. Shyrock and
Seigal (1972) support the use of questionnaires to obtain
factual information.

> At first thought, it may seem that if there is a need
> for information, it is only natural and logical to ask
> for it. In other words, if it is necessary to know
> what people think about certain issues or products, it
> may appear that the easiest and quickest way to find
> out is to interview people. The process of collecting
> information, regardless of the technique used,
> requires that the collector must first decide what
> facts he needs to obtain. These facts must be those
> that are necessary to the solution of the problem
> under study, and they must be set forth as
> specifically written statements which describe and
> explain exactly the information required. Fact
> finding should always be accomplished by the
> techniques that are most efficient in the light of
> the problem being investigated and the time and the
> financial limitations involved. (Shyrock and Siegal,
> 1972, p. 75)

Time and financial limitations may not allow all
athletes to be interviewed concerning coaches and their
behaviors. Some athletes may lack the trust necessary to
fully confide deep concerns during an interview with an
athletic department administrative figure. This same
athlete may find the anonymity of a questionnaire a safe
and effective outlet for these feelings and concerns.
These disclosures could prove very valuable to an
athletic program. As Wisnieski (1980) commented
concerning questionnaire use:

> Questionnaires measuring how leadership behavior is
> perceived may be completed by the leaders themselves
> or by other members of the group. The athletes, in
> this case, are quite important because, as LaGrand
> (1970) pointed out: "In order to investigate the
> circumstances which pervade the successful athlete-
> coach relationship, and thereby provide insight into
> the kinds of behavior these successful professionals

engage in, it seemed important to examine the judgements of athletes who are in a key position for providing useful information." (Wisnieski, 1980, p. 6)

Hile (1985) noted that the athletes' perceptions of their coaches' leadership behavior is "instrumental in assessing the coach's effectiveness." (pg. 29). She further observed that coaches need to acknowledge these perceptions since they cannot ignore them and "still be successful in guiding the players' performance" in competition. (pg. 29)

Once the athletes complete the questionnaire and the data have been analyzed, are the data trustworthy? Are athletes a reliable source for leadership behavior data? Misumi (1985) considered the athletes to be very reliable and noted:

Leadership research, however, has shown that questionnaire responses can reflect a considerable amount of real information about leadership. Stogdill (1969) showed a convergence between leadership behaviors shown by actors and the LBDQ descriptions of naive observers. Bales and Isenberg (1982) have found that the descriptions of leadership by naive observers converge well with observers' records. Even studies designed to show the effects of extraneous information on leadership descriptions have indicated that actual behavior is significantly and substantially reflected in questionnaire responses (Rush and Beauvais 1981). (Misumi, 1985, p. 153)

Silva and Weinberg (1984) found similar agreement of results in surveys of athletes when they observed that athletes' perceptions of leadership were more accurate than those of the coach.

Correlations between the mean behavioral

ratings of each team and the observed CBAS
behaviors of the 51 coaches revealed that players
most accurately perceived punitive behaviors,
reactions to mistakes, and game-irrelevant
communicative behaviors of the coach. However,
correlations between players' perceptions of their
coaches' behaviors and the coaches' self-perceptions
were low and generally nonsignificant. This indicated
that there was little correspondence between the way
coaches viewed themselves and how their players
perceived them. Indeed, the players' perceptions
tended to be more accurate in that they correlated
more highly with CBAS observed behavior scored.
(Silva and Weinberg, 1985, p. 377)

The question could be put forth as to who are the
evaluative experts in athletic leadership situations. If
the athletes can handle the pressures of school and
social life plus those imposed upon them by the
competitive processes of athletics, could it not be
considered that they are capable enough to complete a
questionnaire asking about a coach with whom they are
probably more intimately associated than either the
athletic director or alumni? The preceding studies seem
to indicate that athletes were quite accurate in their
perceptions of such behaviors. Why not give these
athletes the opportunity to provide this type of feedback
to the coach, the administration and the program to which
they devote so much of their time and effort? Athletes
are quite capable of assessing their own needs within the
scope of their athletic lives, and they can be as capable
of determining just how well the coach provided for those
needs. The key point would be for those seeking the
athletes' feedback to provide a well-developed instrument
administered for the purpose of competently gathering
this data.

Studies of Athletic Personnel

Numerous investigations have been done in the area of athletic leadership. The topics studied include the athletic directors, coaching personalities as related to success factors, comparison of male and female coaches, comparison of female coaches only, polls of female athletes only, and polls of athletes of specific sports.

Research concerned with athletic directors include: specific investigation of liberal arts colleges and universities (Watkins 1983); job satisfaction as a reflection of leadership behavior (Vasquez 1982); leadership behavior of voluntary administrators (Vienneau 1982); leadership attitudes of male and female athletic directors (Sunderland 1981); and comparisons between athletic directors and their coaches (F. Buckiewicz 1974).

F. Buckiewicz (1974) used the LBDQ-XII to survey twenty-four athletic directors and 103 collegiate coaches. Athletic directors as a group generally perceived their leadership behavior similarly. Results showed that the coach's perception of their immediate athletic director's behavior to be very much in agreement with the estimates given by the athletic director. The type of sport coached had no significant effect on the coach's perception of the athletic director's behavior.

Watkins (1983) studies the leader behavior of

directors of athletics at eight liberal arts colleges to
determine if differences existed between the leader
behavior of athletic directors as described by the
athletic directors themselves and their intercollegiate
sport coaches, their deans, and the presidents of the
colleges at which they were employed. The instrument
used to assess the athletic directors' behavior was the
Managerial Behavior Survey (MBS). Respondents included
eight athletic directors, five college presidents, six
college deans, and 107 sport coaches. It was found that
sport coaches tended to differ from the athletic
directors, college presidents, and college deans on how
they perceived the leader behavior of the athletic
directors.

Concerns regarding success factors in athletics are
of two types. One concern is with leadership
personalities, characteristics, or style hoping to find
the formula for success and the other compares successful
and unsuccessful programs trying to locate material
differences. Those which compared leadership personality
and characteristics or leadership style to the success of
the program include works by Kearns (1986), Schroeder
(1978), Young (1981), Lewis (1978), Patrow (1971), Hastad
(1072), Helms (1980), Wardell (1977), Green (1980),
Friedrichs (1984), Lacy (1983), Model (1983), Stein
(1979) and Icinciong (1974). Those which concerned
themselves only with comparing successful and

unsuccessful coaches and/or programs include studies by
Dallman (1973), Clark (1974), Eggert (1978), Simpson
(1984), and Ogilvie (1965).

In 1986, Kearns examined the relationship of
leadership and personality to success in coaching
collegiate women's basketball. Nineteen coaches with
high winning percentages and twenty-four with low winning
percentages completed both the LBDQ-XII and Cattell's 16
PF questionnaires. Results showed that there was no
significant difference between the two groups.

Hasted (1972) studied the relationship between
authoritarianism and success in the coaching of high
school football and basketball. Twenty-eight coaches
(fourteen from each sport) completed a forty-eight item
modified F-scale Rokeach Dogmatism questionnaire.
Analysis to compare the upper one-third (the most
successful coaches) with the lower two-thirds (the least
successful coaches) showed there was no significant
difference between the two groups. Further analysis
showed no significant relationship between success and
authoritarianism between the most successful group and
the least successful group.

Lewis (1978) was concerned with the relationship
between leadership and success of female volleyball
coaches. Leadership styles of forty-eight high school
coaches were measured along the lines of Fiedler's
Contingency Model of leadership using the Least Preferred

Co-Worker (LPC) Scale. The effectiveness of female volleyball coaches as measured by the LPC was then correlated with team success. Results indicated that there was no significant relationship between leadership style and team success.

Dallman (1973) analyzed the differences between selected personality traits of successful and unsuccessful coaches in football, wrestling and basketball. Using Cattell's 16 PF questionnaire, coaches having more than 60 percent victories were compared to coaches having fewer than 60 percent victories. Results showed that the unsuccessful basketball coaches were slower to learn and grasp ideas than the successful group. The successful wrestling coaches were shy, diffident, and more careful in detail than the unsuccessful group who were emotionally less stable and more easily upset than the successful group. There was no significant difference found between successful and unsuccessful football coaches.

Wardell (1977) viewed the relationship between leadership style and success of male high school coaches of football, basketball, wrestling and track. Four head coaches from each of twenty-one high schools completed the Least Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) Scale. Results indicated that in LPC correlated with team success and performance in the sports of football and wrestling. The relationship between the LPC and team success in

basketball and track was not significant.

Stein (1979) used the Youth Self Description
questionnaire to survey ten high school girls' volleyball
teams and their coaches. The purpose was to determine if
any correlation existed between an athletic coach's
ability to describe their athletes' perceptions of
themselves in terms of Erikson's Ego State Theory and
their contest success in volleyball. Analysis of the 120
item, six part like-unlike scale indicated that no
significant relationship existed between the athletes'
perceptions of themselves and the descriptions of this
perception given by the coach.

Young (1981) investigated the relationships along
leader characteristics of male and female basketball
coaches and team performance. Sixty-four male and
twenty-five female coaches completed both the LPC and the
LBDQ, as well as undergoing a thirty-minute interview.
Analysis revealed that women were more structuring than
men, used fewer production emphasis behaviors, and
believed that sportsmanship was more important than the
men. Male coaches showed more consideration, used more
production emphasis behaviors, believed winning, fitness,
and aggressiveness were more important than the female
coaches. The study also showed than men and women were
equally effective as coaches of female athletic teams.

Research comparing the leadership behaviors of
female coaches or those involved solely in the coaching

of female athletes include works by Kearns (1986),
Schroeder (1978), Lewis (1978), Clay (1974), Stallard
(1974), Hill (1978), Knoppers (1978), Johnson (1972),
Malumphy (1968), Peterson et al. (1967), George (1988),
Jerome (1969), Buhrer (1973), Clark (1974), Jones (1975),
Eggert (1978), Fankhauser (1978), Tamsberg (1978), Lowry
(1972), Grastorf (1980), Callaway (1982), and Ortelee
(1983).

Clark (1974) surveyed 419 female athletes in four
sports (Basketball, volleyball, gymnastics and swimming)
to ascertain their perceptions of selected
characteristics of successful women intercollegiate
coaches. Each athlete ranked a list of twelve coaching
characteristics with their coach in mind. The results
showed that, of the team sports of basketball and
volleyball, basketball coaches were ranked highest on all
twelve characteristics. In the individual sports of
swimming and gymnastics, the swimming coaches were higher
on eleven of the twelve, with gymnastics coaches scoring
higher only on the talent for organizing characteristic.
The individual sports coaches ranked higher overall on
nine of the twelve areas with team sport coaches being
higher on knowledge of sport, ability to teach and talent
for organizing.

George (1988) studied 516 collegiate athletes at
eleven Indiana colleges to determine their interest in a
coaching career. The athletes were asked to denote the

gender of their past coaches as well as declare any
gender preference of coaches. Eighty-four percent of the
females had been coached by both female and male coaches.
There was an even split in attitudinal preference for a
male or female coach.

Jones (1975) employed the critical incident
technique of on-the-scene observations of behavior to
identify and classify incidents judged to be
characteristic of effective and ineffective coaching of
thirteen female collegiate volleyball coaches. The 133
observers reported 684 incidents which yielded 1,324
behaviors. These behaviors were placed in a
classification system to create a list of the seventeen
most frequently reported behaviors. These were labeled
"critical behaviors." The two most important critical
behaviors as determined by this study were: (1) to
analyze and correct skill errors, and (2) to encourage
the players and the team.

Eggert (1978) analyzed the relationship between
selected factors used to prepare coaches and coaching
success in women's athletics at the collegiate level.
The study involved 147 female and thirty-one male coaches
in the sports of basketball, volleyball, softball, golf,
tennis, and gymnastics. The factors selected were age,
college degree, years of experience, collegiate major,
and combination of these. It was found that the most
successful coaches were those who had not been physical

education majors but who had a lot of experience in
athletics.

Fankhouser (1978) investigated the differences
between female athletes' real and ideal perceptions of
their volleyball coaches. Using the Coaches Ideal-Real
Description Questionnaire, 314 female volleyball players
from twenty-seven Kansas high schools were surveyed. The
findings indicated a difference in some of the ideal
characteristics that the athlete was expecting of the
coach and those actually exhibited by the coach. The
perceptions matched in the characteristic areas of
ability to motivate, aggression, being an example,
encouraging, energetic, ethical, cooperation, dedication,
emotionally stable, development of self confidence,
firmness, good appearance , honesty, knowledgeable,
leadership, loyalty, optimism, perception, practical,
reliable, respected, responsible, secure, humor, and
understanding. The ideal perceptions did not match real
perceptions in the characteristic areas of fairness,
creativity, preparedness and trustworthiness.

Schroeder (1978) investigated the leader behavior of
female collegiate coaches as Perceived by athletes in
relation to team success. The LBDQ-Real Questionnaire
was used to survey twenty-six coaches and their athletes.
There was no significant relationship between the win-
loss record and leader behavior as perceived by the
athletes.

Tamsberg (1978) sought to identify competencies considered to be important for coaches of female athletes. Five hundred subjects were surveyed using seven-dimensional analysis in the areas of administrative aspects, kinesiological foundations, medical-legal aspects, physiological foundations, psychological aspects, sociological aspects, and theory and technique. The survey was a Likert scale which measured reflections of the degree of importance attached to the various competencies. It was concluded that the role of the coaches of female athletes was multidimensional in nature. These dimensions were divided into six categories deemed to be the most important. These were evaluative aspects, scientific applications, medical-legal aspects, value considerations, administrative aspects, and individualized training techniques.

Studies concerned with comparing the leadership behavior of males and females involved in coaching or administration of physical education included those by Nimchick (1977), Newcomb (1977), Stanek (1977), Green (1980), Hile (1985), Young (1981), Williams (1987), Johnson (1982), Heller (1978), Sunderland (1981), Williams (1982), and Butterfield and Powell (1981).

Nimchick (1977) investigated the attitudes of female collegiate swimmers toward male and female coaches. Seventy-one athletes (thirty-five coached by men and thirty-six coached by women) completed a semantic

differential questionnaire to assess their attitudes
regarding six concepts. It was found that the athletes
were more positive toward male coaches then female
coaches regarding the coaches' authority and their
willingness to put in extra time to help the swimmers.
There were no significant differences on the remaining
concepts.

Hile (1985) compared the leadership behavior of male
and female coaches of women's collegiate basketball
teams. The Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) was used to
survey twenty-nine coaches and 312 athletes from thirty-
one colleges and universities in order to evaluate the
coaches' behavior on five factors. These factors were
training and instruction, democratic behavior, social
supports, autocratic behavior, and positive feedback.
The results showed that the leadership behavior of male
and female coaches did not differ significantly when
perceived by the athletes.

Newcomb (1977) also surveyed female athletes
concerning their attitudes toward their male and female
coaches. One hundred and twenty-nine female collegiate
athletes were surveyed. The female athletes shared
similar attitudes toward male and female coaches.
Neither coach was considered a parent figure but more
often a good friend. Neither coach was considered to
have much influence on the athletes' personality.
While the athletes had no preference at to who coached

them, they felt that the female coach created a more positive image for female athletes.

Stanek (1977) compared the interpersonal behavior characteristics of selected male and female collegiate coaches in large and small schools. She found that the size of the college affected certain types of behavior, such as expressed inclusion, with small institutions scoring higher in many areas. Sex of the coach was a factor in the areas of control and inclusion with males scoring higher than females in both.

Williams (1987) investigated the self-perceptions of leadership qualities of male and female coaches in ninety-five western Pennsylvania schools. The coaches' responses to questions on the LBDQ-XXI were analyzed to determine if there was a difference in the way male head coaches and female head coaches perceived leadership qualities in head coaches. No significant differences were found in any of the twelve subscales.

Many investigators have undertaken to study the leadership behaviors of coaches of individual sports or specific combinations of team and/or individual sports. Among the sports studied are the 'major sports' of basketball (Clark (1974), Eggert (1978), Gates (1972), LaGrand (1970), Wardell (1977), Lowry (1972), Green (1980), Hile (1985), Simpson (1984), Young (1981), Hodges (1983), Grastorf (1980), Hartman (1972), Rider (1971), Hastad (1972), Dallman (1973), Kearns (1986), Helms

(1980), Johnson (1972), Callaway (1982), Inciong (1974),
Vis Strache (1979), and Chelladurai and Saleh (1980)},
football {Gates (1972), Wardell (1977), Lacey (1983),
Model (1983), Hastad (1972), and Dallman (1973)},
baseball {Gates (1972), and Seymour (1956)}, and
volleyball {Clark (1974), Eggert (1978), Fankhouser
(1978), Jones (1975), Stein (1979, Grastorf (1980), Rath
(1983) and Lewis (1978)}. Also researched were behaviors
in other sports such as water polo {Gaintner (1976)},
gymnastics {Clark (1974), Eggert (1978), and Bosco
(1962)}, hockey {Danielson et at. (1974)}, swimming
{Clark (1974), Nimchick (1977), Behrman (1967), Hendry
(1969), and Gaintner (1976)}, softball {Eggert (1978),
Wisnieski (1980), and Gill and Perry (1979)}, golf
{Eggert (1978), Johnson (1972), and Gold (1955)}, tennis
{Eggert (1978), LaGrand (1970), Wisnieski (1980), Gold
(1955), and Knapp (1965)}, karate {Kroll et al. (1967)},
wrestling {LaGrand (1970), Wardell (1977), Dallman
(1973)}, soccer {LaGrand (1970)}, bowling {Johnson
(1972)}, field hockey {Johnson (1972)}, and track and
field {Wardell (1977) and Schliesman (1987)}.

Rath (1983) analyzed the differences in leadership
role perceptions between the head intercollegiate
volleyball coach and the athletes. Nine major dimensions
of leadership were measured using the LBDQ. The subjects
included 132 athletes and sixteen coaches. Results
showed a significant difference in three of the nine

dimensions. The perception of leadership role showed no significant differences between the athletes and coaches with the exception of the dimensions of membership, integration, and recognition.

Schliesman (1987) used the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) to survey forty female track and field athletes in order to measure two aspects of leadership: satisfaction with general leadership and satisfaction with specific leader behaviors. The five specific leader behaviors measured were training and instruction, social support, positive feedback, democratic behavior, and autocratic behavior. General satisfaction with leadership was found to be related to actual scores in democratic behavior and actual scores in social support. Satisfaction with specific leader behaviors was related to discrepancy scores in training and instruction, social support, and positive feedback.

Hendry (1969) performed a personality study of highly successful and "ideal" swimming coaches. Forty-eight selected coaches and thirty international caliber junior age swimmers constructed their "ideal" coach's personality profile on a ten-point scale using Cattell's 16 FF questionnaire. The results indicated that the greatest similarities existed between the coaches' subjective self-assessments and the "ideal" coach, as well as between the coaches' and swimmers' estimations of the "ideal" coach.

The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire

Descriptions

The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) encompasses two indices: 'Consideration' and 'Initiating Structure.' Consideration has been described by Misumi (1985) as the concern for people, and 'initiating structure' as the concern for production. Cox (1985) described consideration to be "indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth between the coach and the athlete" and initiating structure to be "a leadership style in which patterns of organization, channels of communication, and procedures were well established." (p. 308) In the handbook for the LBDQ, Halpin (1957) described initiating structure as a leader's behavior "in delineating the relationship between himself and the members of his group." (p. 1) Halpin (1957) described consideration as referring to "behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in relationship between leader and members of the group." (p. 1)

Development and Uses of the LBDQ

The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was developed by the Ohio State University's Research Studies Program from numerous field studies conducted in management science. The initial work involved defining and measuring leadership behaviors,

specifically in the area of universal behaviors. The
original leadership behavior classifications were
identified by Hemphill and Coons in the 1950's. The LBDQ
has seen many applications in corporate settings,
military settings, and educational situations as well as
the athletics area. (Stogdill, 1974)

The LBDQ can be modified to meet the needs of the
particular survey conducted as well as the particular
needs of the researcher. The use of a questionnaire
method of surveying became widespread in the 1950's when
researchers liked the fact that it provided a rating
scale developed to measure consideration and initiating
structure. (Stogdill, 1974) Stogdill reported of its use
in military surveys utilizing air crews and their crew
chiefs. The military provided a great and fertile field
for testing this form of leadership survey.

It was only logical to utilize the LBDQ in military
situations since these presented the most cut-and-dried
examples of the leader-follower dyad available and the
internal validity was well controlled. Still, the
question as to how these studies would carry over into
the civilian world was to be answered. Thus, following
the military trials, the instrument was used in
educational research. Surveys of teachers, supervisors,
superintendents, and board of education members were
conducted and the results correlated well with the
military studies.

As the survey continued to be used, it was also continially refined to provide even better results for the researchers. After using the questionnaire in the fields of military and educational research, it was only natural to continue the process and carry it into the athletic area. Danielson et al. (1974) used the LBDQ to survey 160 adolescent hockey players, ages 12-18, to determine the dimensionality of commonly perceived coaching behaviors. The questionnaire took thirty minutes to complete using a 140 question form. This survey resulted in fifty-seven of the most commonly reported coaching behaviors which were later subjected to factor analysis and multidimensional scaling procedures. (Danielson et al., 1974) Von Strache utilized the LBDQ to determine the leadership behavior characteristics of coaches of a losing team and found a perception of uncertainty on the part of the coaches as seen by the athletes. (Frankhauser, 1978) Rath (1983) used the LBDQ in an investigation in which fifty collegiate women's volleyball athletes were to evaluate the head coaches in nine different domains of leadership. Wisnieski (1980) used the LBDQ with four collegiate tennis teams and four collegiate softball teams to determine the members' interpretations of the behaviors of their coaches in an individual and a team sport. Waldenberger (1975) analyzed leader behavior in physical education departments with the LBDQ. The LBDQ has developed a wide

usefulness in these area.

The LBDQ was validated by using a group of actors
and naive observers. The procedure is described as
follows:

> In order to test the validity of several
> subscales of the LBDQ, Stogdill (1969), with the
> assistance of a playwright, wrote a scenario for
> each of six subscales (consideration, structure,
> representation, tolerance of freedom, production
> emphasis and superior orientation). The items in
> the subscale were used as a basis for writing the
> scenario for that pattern of behavior. Experienced
> actors played the roles of supervisor and workers.
> Each role was played by two different actors, and
> each actor played two different roles. Motion
> pictures were made of the role performances.
> Observers used the LBDQ to describe the superior's
> behavior. No significant differences were found
> between two different actors playing the same role,
> Still, the actors playing a given role were described
> significantly higher than in other roles. Since each
> role was designed to portray the behaviors represented
> by the items in its representative subscale, and since
> the same items were used by observers to describe
> enactment of the role, it can be concluded that the
> scales measure what they are proported to measure.
> (Stogdill, 1974, p. 144)

The estimated reliability by the split-half method
is .83 for the initiating structure scores and .90 for
the consideration scores. (Halpin, 1957, p. 1)

CHAPTER III

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Selection of Subjects

A sample of 200 colleges and universities was selected from the 2,000 schools listed in The 1990-1991 Directory of College Athletics (Women's Edition) (Franks, 1987). A random numbers table generated a set of numbers that corresponded to page and line numbers providing the identification of random schools to be surveyed. These schools were then reviewed to determine if they met the two basic criteria: (1) the schools had to have a women's softball program, and (2) they had to be located within the continental United States.

Construction of Instrument

With the permission of the Ohio State University (Appendix 3) a modified form of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire was constructed and distributed to the schools being surveyed. The questionnaire consisted of fifty items, forty of which were scored. There were also ten questions of a demographic nature used to gather information about the respondents. The modified version of the LBDQ was short and concise enough to be completed in thirty minutes and was constructed in a manner that allowed it to be answered on a Scantron (c) answer sheet which would facilitate computer scoring and analysis.

The athletes' LBDQ questionnaire statements specifically pertained to the coach who was responsible for the respondents' activity. Each statement in the athletes' LBDQ section began with "My coach..." The statements were arranged in both the negative and positive form to eliminate the possibility of predictability of selections on the part of the respondents. Point values from 1 to 5 were assigned to each answer with 1 being the most negative and 5 being the most positive. These scores were separated into their respective dimensions to give initiating structure and consideration scores for the coaches.

Administration of the Instrument

A packet was compiled consisting of questionnaires and answer sheets for the coaches and questionnaires and answer sheets for the athletes of each school surveyed, in addition to cover letters explaining the purpose of the survey and giving instructions for its administration. The questionnaires were to be administered to the athletes during a team gathering of sufficient length for the athletes to read and answer the questions. The completed questionnaires were collected and placed in a return envelope that had been provided as part of the survey package. Packets were then processed by the investigator.

Statistical Procedures

The data was subjected to a t-test to determine if any differences existed between male and female coaches on the dimensions of consideration and initiating structure and a one-way analysis of variance to determine if any difference existed among the four coaching groups identified.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS

The results of the data analysis are presented in this chapter. Two-hundred and twenty-three scored their coaches on two dimensions of leadership: Consideration and Initiating Structure. Too few questionnaires were completed by coaches to merit analysis of coaching self description. Descriptive statistics are presented to characterize the sample of athletes. The computer program used to analyze the data was the "Statistical Package for Social Sciences", SPSS release 4.0 VAX/VMS, San Diego State University on UCSVAX: V5.4.

Comparison between Male and Female Coaches

The analysis of the data was performed using a t-test to compare for any significant differences between mean scores on the two dimensions of leadership behavior for male and female coaches. The means, standard deviations and t ratios for these scores are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1

T-TEST FOR SIGNIFICANCE IN COMPARING MALE AND FEMALE

COACHES OF WOMENS' SOFTBALL

Group	N	Consideration		Initiating Structure		df	t
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Male Coaches	151	56.166	9.71	57.232	7.92	221	-0.08
Female Coaches	72	56.278	9.56	58.722	8.27		

p = .05

With 221 df, a t of 1.960 is needed for significance
at the .05 level. The results of the t-test showed no
significant difference in the leadership dimension scores
of male and female coaches.

The descriptive statistics for the consideration and
initiating structure scores of the coaches are divided
into groups based on the sex of the coach and presented
in Table 2.

The results of the analysis of variance performed on
the consideration mean scores for the four coaching
groups are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 2

STATISTICS FOR CONSIDERATION AND INITIATING STRUCTURE

FOR SOFTBALL COACHES BY SEX AND COACHING POSITION

		Consideration		Initiating Structure	
Group	N	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Male Head Coaches	92	55.707	9.862	58.163	7.479
Female Head Coaches	59	55.932	9.582	59.661	7.982
Male Assistant Coaches	59	56.881	9.507	55.780	8.428
Female Assistant Coaches	13	57.846	9.660	54.462	8.540

These statistics show nearly identical means and standard deviations for male and female head coaches as well as for male and female assistant coaches on the consideration and initiating structure dimensions. In order to determine if any significant differences existed among these means, the data was subjected to a one-way analysis of variance. The results of the one-way analysis of variance performed on the consideration scores for the four coaching groups are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3

SUMMARY OF RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR

COMPARISON OF MEANS AMONG THE FOUR COACHING

GROUPS FOR CONSIDERATION

Source of Variation	ss	df	ms	f
Between groups	93.68	3	31.23	0.003
Within groups	2670530.90	219	12194.21	
Total	2670624.58	222		

p = .05

The results of the one-way analysis of variance
performed on the initiating structure scores for the four
coaching groups as determined by sex and coaching
position are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4

SUMMARY OF RESULTS OF ANALYSIS FOR VARIANCE FOR

COMPARISON OF MEANS AMONG THE FOUR COACHING

GROUPS FOR INITIATING STRUCTURE

Source of Variation	ss	df	ms	f
Between groups	90.56	3	30.18	0.032
Within groups	202334.10	219	923.90	
Total	202424.66	222		

p = .05

67

With 3 and 219 df, an F of 8.54 is needed for significance at the .05 level. The results of the one-way analysis of variance performed on the mean Consideration and Initiating Structure scores showed no significant difference in these leadership dimensions for any of the four coaching groups identified.

Discussion of Results

Female intercollegiate softball athletes do not seem to perceive male and female coaches' leadership differently. The results of this study support the results of previous research. Hile (1985) determined that leadership behavior of male and female basketball coaches did not differ significantly when perceived by female athletes. Butterfield and Powell (1981) found that the sex of leaders did not appear to have an effect on how they were rated by their followers. They found that male and female leaders using the same leadership style were rated essentially the same. When Weinberg et al. (1984) investigated the attitudes of male and female athletes toward male and female coaches, they found that "the female athletes did not perceive male and female coaches differently." (1984, p. 452) The results of one study differed from these findings. Parkhouse and Williams (1986) found that male and female athletes rated the male coaches the same and always higher than the female coach. They also found that 89 percent of the male athletes and 71 percent of the female athletes preferred a male coach. A few differences were noted by some investigators.

Studying a dimension similar to consideration, Newcomb (1977) noted that athletes perceived female coaches as easier to approach than male coaches. The present study showed males only slightly lower than

females in the consideration dimension. This finding differs from those of Young (1981) who showed that male coaches, when working with female athletes, scored higher in the consideration domain than female coaches. It has been shown that men and women rate themselves the same. (Williams 1987)

The present study indicated that approximately 27 percent of the female athletes had been coached by a woman. This is greatly lower than the figures produced by George (1988) who found that 84 percent of the female athletes surveyed had been coached by a woman.

While this study presented statistics concerning assistant coaches, a review of the literature yielded no studies in which assistant coaches were viewed separately from head coaches. By breaking down the two sex groups into the separate coaching position groups, additional analyses of differences may be studied. This may be an area for future study.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this research was to determine if any differences in leadership behavior existed between male and female coaches of women's intercollegiate softball. Athletes (N = 223) from fourteen colleges and universities were surveyed using the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire.

The data was collected during the Spring & Summer semesters of 1992. Means and standard deviations were computed. A t-test was performed to determine if any significant differences existed between the mean scores for men and women. In addition, a one-way analysis was performed on the mean Consideration and Initiating Structure scores for the four coaching groups.

Conclusions

Based on the data obtained from this investigation, the following conclusions can be reported:

1. There was no significant difference in leadership behavior of male and female coaches as perceived by female intercollegiate softball athletes.

2. There was no significant difference between the mean scores of the athletes' perceptions of the leadership behavior for head coaches (regardless of sex) and for assistant coaches (regardless of sex).

Recommendations

Based on the results of this research, the following recommendations are suggested:

1. There are many studies reviewing leadership of coaches but few have examined the possible feasibility of using athlete completed questionnaires in the evaluation and direction of athletes. Could such questionnaires be used in a prophylactic manner to prevent a variety of problems ranging from athletic liability to personality conflicts?

2. Studies such as this need to be performed several times over the course of an athletic season. Pre-season, mid-season, and post-season surveys should be made in order to observe changes in responses by the athletes. This would help determine if factors such as maturity or improved motor skills, play a role in athletes' evaluations of coaches.

APPENDIX 1
LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS

17 March 1992

Dear Coach,

I am an active duty Lieutenant Commander attending Navy Post Graduate education at San Diego State University in the Education Training and Management specialty. A graduation requirement is a research project. I have chosen a descriptive study to determine if there are any differences in the leadership behavior of male and female coaches of women's intercollegiate softball. I am writing to ask for your assistance in this endeavor. I am interested both in how the athletes perceive their respective coaches and how the leadership behavior between male and female coaches may differ. The results of this study should give those currently coaching and those planning a coaching career a better insight into the dynamics of the profession. Similar surveys have been conducted in other sports as well as other professions and have proven to be a valuable resource tool.

I realize time constraints under which you operate as a coach. As a former coach, I understand the difficulty in gathering your athletes together in one place in order to administer a questionnaire. The questionnaire was constructed to be as short and simple as possible in order to increase the ease and speed of administration. I suggest that you may consider administering it either at a team meeting or during a warm up or cool down period when all your athletes are together. It should only take twenty minutes to complete the survey.

I appreciate how valuable your time is, especially this time of year as you prepare for your season. If you could administer this survey to all your female athletes and return it in the enclosed post paid envelope by July 1, 1992, I would appreciate it. Your participation is critical if we are to understand the coaching profession better. Please be assured that complete anonymity is guaranteed.

I thank you in advance for your participation.

Sincerely,

Peggy L. Lau

APPENDIX 2
THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY LEADERSHIP
BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Developed by staff members of

The Ohio State Leadership Studies

Name of Leader Being Described _____

Name of Group Which He/She Leads _____

Your Name _____

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used
to describe the behavior of your supervisor. Each item
describes a specific kind of behavior, but does not ask you
to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable.
This is not a test of ability. It simply asks you to describe
as accurately as you can, the behavior of your supervisor.

Note: The term "group," as employed in the following items,
refers to a department, division, or other unit of organization
which is supervised by the person being described.

The term "members," refers to all the people in the unit of
organization which is supervised by the person being described.

DIRECTIONS:

a. READ each item carefully.

b. THINK about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior
    described by the item.

c. DECIDE whether he/she always, often, occasionally, seldom
    or never acts as described by the item.

d. DRAW A CIRCLE around one of the five letters following the
    item to show the answer you have selected.

            A = Always
            B = Often
            C = Occasionally
            D = Seldom
            E = Never

1.	Does personal favors for group members.	A B C D E
2.	Makes his/her attitudes clear to the group.	A B C D E
3.	Does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group.	A B C D E
4.	Tries out his/her new ideas with the group.	A B C D E
5.	Acts as the leader of the group.	A B C D E
6.	Is easy to understand.	A B C D E
7.	Rules with an iron hand.	A B C D E
8.	Finds time to listen to group members.	A B C D E
9.	Criticizes poor work.	A B C D E
10.	Gives advance notice of changes.	A B C D E
11.	Speaks in a manner not to be questioned.	A B C D E
12.	Keeps to himself/herself.	A B C D E
13.	Looks out for the personal welfare of individual group members.	A B C D E
14.	Assigns group members to particular tasks.	A B C D E
15.	Is the spokesperson of the group.	A B C D E
16.	Schedules the work to be done.	A B C D E
17.	Maintains definite standards of performance.	A B C D E
18.	Refuses to explain his/her behavior.	A B C D E
19.	Keeps the group informed.	A B C D E
20.	Acts without consulting the group.	A B C D E
21.	Backs up the members in their actions.	A B C D E

22. Emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.   A B C D E

23. Treats all group members as his/her equal.   A B C D E

24. Encourages the use of uniform procedures.   A B C D E

25. Gets what he/she asks for from his/her   A B C D E
    supervisors.

26. Is willing to make changes.   A B C D E

27. Makes sure that his/her part in the organization A B C D E
    is understood.

28. Is friendly and approachable.   A B C D E

29. Asks that group members follow standard rules A B C D E
    and regulations.

30. Fails to take necessary action.   A B C D E

31. Makes group members feel at ease when talking A B C D E
    with them.

32. Lets group members know what is expected of them. A B C D E

33. Speaks as the representative of the group.   A B C D E

34. Puts suggestions made by the group into operation A B C D E

35. Sees to it that group members are working   A B C D E
    up to capacity.

36. Lets other people take away his/her leadership A B C D E
    in the group.

37. Gets his/her superiors to act for the welfare A B C D E
    of the group members.

38. Gets group approval in important matters before A B C D E
    going ahead.

39. Sees to it that the work of group members is   A B C D E
    coordinated.

40. Keeps the group working together as a team.   A B C D E

APPENDIX 3
THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY LBDQ
POLICY STATEMENT

STATEMENT OF POLICY

Concerning the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire and
Related Forms

Permission is granted without formal request to use the
Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire and <u>other</u> related
forms developed at The Ohio State University, subject to the
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1. <u>Use</u>: The forms may be used in research projects. They
   may not be used for promotional activities or for
   producing income on behalf of individuals or organi-
   zations other than The Ohio State University.

2. <u>Adaptation and Revision</u>: The directions and the form
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   such steps are considered desirable.

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APPENDIX 4
THE LBDQ USER's MANUAL

MANUAL

for the

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Andrew W. Halpin

Bureau of Business Research
College of Commerce and Administration
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio

1957

MANUAL FOR LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

The leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) provides a technique whereby group members may describe the leader behavior of designated leaders in formal organizations. The LBDQ contains items, each of which describes a specific way in which a leader may behave. The respondent indicates the frequency with which he perceives the leader to engage in each type of behavior by marking one of five adverbs: always, often, occasionally, seldom, never. These responses are obtained from the members of the leader's immediate work-group, and are scored on two dimensions of leader behavior. For each dimension, the scores from the several group members are then averaged to yield an index of the leaders behavior. For each dimension, the scores from the several group members are then averaged to yield an index of the leader's behavior in respect to that dimension.

The LBDQ was developed by the staff of the Personnel Research Board, The Ohio State University, as one project of the Ohio State Leadership Studies, directed by Dr. Carroll L. Shartle. Hemphill and Coons (14) constructed the original form of the questionnaire; and Halpin and Winer (11) in reporting the development of an Air Force adaptation of the instrument, identified Initiating Structure and Consideration as two fundamental dimensions of leader behavior. These dimensions were identified on the basis of a factor analysis of the responses of 300 B-29 crew members who described the leader behavior of their 52 aircraft commanders. Initiating Structure and Consideration accounted for approximately 34 to 50 percent respectively of the common variance. In a subsequent study based upon a sample of 249 aircraft commanders, the correlation between the scores on the two dimensions was found to be .38.

Initiating Structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and the members of his group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication and ways of getting the job done. Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in relationship between the leader and members of the group.

Only 30 of the 40 items are scored; 15 for each of the two dimensions. The 10 unscored items have been retained in the questionnaire in order to keep the conditions of administration comparable to those used in standardizing the questionnaire. The scored items for each of the two dimension keys are listed on Pages 4 and 6.

The score for each dimension is the sum of the scores assigned to responses marked on each of the 15 items in the dimension. The possible range of scores on each dimension is 0 to 60.

The estimated reliability by the split-half method is .83 for the Initiative Structure scores, and .92 for the Consideration scores, when corrected for attenuation.

In several studies (5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10) where the agreement among respondents in describing their respective leaders has been checked by a "between-vs. within-group" analysis of variance, the F ratios all have been found significant at the .01 level. Followers tend to agree in describing the same leader, and the descriptions of different leaders differ significantly.

The LBDQ has been used for research purposes in industrial, military, and educational settings. Fleishman (2, 3, 4) and Fleisman, Harris and Burtt (5) have used the LBDQ for use in their studies of factory foremen and have found the two leader behavior dimensions useful in evaluating the results of a supervisory train- ing program. Halpin (7) has reported the relationship between the aircraft commander's behavior on these dimensions and evaluations of his performance made both by his superiors and his crew members; and has presented evidence (6) which indicates that the most "effective" commanders are those who score high on the <u>both</u> dimensions of leader behavior. Similarly, Hemphill (12) in a study of 22 departments in a liberal arts college, found that the depart- ments with the best campus "reputation" for being well administered were those whose leaders were described as above the average on <u>both</u> dimensions of leader behavior. Halpin has reported the LBDQ descriptions of a sample of 50 school superintendents (10), and and elsewhere has compared the leader behavior pf aircraft command- ers and school administrators (8). A list of pertinent studies in which the LBDQ has been used is given on the last page of this manual. These studies are summarized in a monograph edited by Stogdill and Coons (14).

Administration of the LBDQ

The questionnaire may be given wither individually or to small groups. The purpose, of course, should be explained. It is best not to have the leader physically present while the group members are describing his behavior. It also is preferable to be able to guarantee the protection of the anonymity of each respondent. Inasmuch as each index score used to describe the leader's behavior is derived by averaging the scores by which his group members describe him it is not necessary to identify each respondent by name. The only name required on the questionnaire blank is the name of leader who is being described.

How many respondents are needed to provide a satisfactory index score for the leader's behavior? Experience suggests that a minimum of four respondents per leader is desirable, and that additional respondents beyond ten do not increase significantly the stability of the index scores. Six or seven respondents per

leader would be a good standard. Obviously, much depends upon the particular leader and group in which one may be interested. If the group is large, then it is possible to select about seven respondents from the larger group by use of a table of random numbers. (The use of this method, with a built-in provision to counteract the effect of absences, as described in Reference No. 10).

In administering the LBDQ, <u>no mention should be made of the Initiating Structure and Consideration</u> dimensions. The respondents should merely be told that they are to describe the approximate frequency with which the leader engages in each of the behaviors specified in the questionnaire items. If questions arise, simply instruct the respondents to "make the best estimate possible." Urge, however, that every item be answered.

Interpretation of Scores

When each LBDQ answer sheet has been scored on each of the two dimensions, and scores secured from the several respondents have been averaged separately by dimension, then the two average scores may be designated as the leader's Initiating Structure and Consideration index scores. Each index score should be rounded to the nearest whole number.

How may these Initiating Structure and Consideration scores be interpreted? Preferably, the members of a given sample of leaders should be evaluated in respect to their relative position on each dimension, as compared with other members of that same sample. At present we do not have LBDQ data available on many different types of leaders. What data we have should therefore not be construed as norms, in the struct sense of the term. But in order to provide some basis for interpreting LBDQ scores, we may refer to data secured from three independent samples of leaders.

Sample I consisted of 251 B-29 aircraft commanders (AC's) each of whom was described by an average of 8 crew members. In no instance were there less and 4 or more than 10 respondents descriptions.

Sample II was composed of 144 RB-47 aircraft commanders (AC's), each of whom was described by his 2 fellow crew men.

Sample III comprises 64 educational administrators (EA's) of Ohio public schools. The majority of this sample are school superintendents, each of whom was described by 7 staff members.

The means, standard deviations, and quartile points, for these three samples are given in Table 1 for Initiating Structure, and in Table 2, for Consideration. Because the three samples are not directly comparable, no attempt has been made to consolidate the data across samples. Although these dats are not sufficient to serve as norme, they may be used as a rough guide for interpreting LBDQ scores.

Items in the Consideration Scale

Item No.   Item

  1.   He does personal favors for group members.

  3.   He does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group.

  6.   He is easy to understand.

  8.   He finds time to listen to group members.

12.   He keeps to himself.*

13.   He looks out for the personal welfare of individual group members.

18.   He refuses to explain his actions.*

20.   He acts without consulting the group.*

21.   He backs up the members in their actions.

23.   He treats all group members as his equals.

26.   He is willing to make changes.

28.   He is friendly and approachable.

31.   He makes group members feel at ease when talking with them.

34.   He puts suggestions made by the group into operation.

38.   He gets group approval on important matters before going ahead.

Items 5, 10, 15, 19, 25, 30, 33, 36, 37 and 40 are not scored on either dimension.

*These items are scored in reverse.

SCORING KEY FOR CONSIDERATION

Item No.	Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never
1	4	3	2	1	0
3	4	3	2	1	0
6	4	3	2	1	0
8	4	3	2	1	0
12	0	1	2	3	4
13	4	3	2	1	0
18	0	1	2	3	4
20	0	1	2	3	4
21	4	3	2	1	0
23	4	3	2	1	0
26	4	3	2	1	0
28	4	3	2	1	0
31	4	3	2	1	0
34	4	3	2	1	0
38	4	3	2	1	0

Items in the Initiating Structure Scale

Item No.	Item
2.	He makes his attitudes clear to the group.
4.	He tries out his new ideas with the group.
7.	He rules with an iron hand.
9.	He criticizes poor work.
11.	He speaks in a manner not to be questioned.
14.	He assigns group members to particular tasks.
16.	He schedules the work to be done.
17.	He maintains definite standards of performance.
22.	He emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.
24.	He encourages the use of uniform procedures.
27.	He makes sure that his part in the organization is understood by all group members.
29.	He asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations.
32.	He lets group members know what is expected of them.
35.	He sees to it that group members are working up to capacity.
39.	He sees to it that the work of group members is coordinated.

SCORING KEY FOR INITIATING STRUCTURE

Item No.	Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never
2	4	3	2	1	0
4	4	3	2	1	0
7	4	3	2	1	0
9	4	3	2	1	0
11	4	3	2	1	0
14	4	3	2	1	0
16	4	3	2	1	0
17	4	3	2	1	0
22	4	3	2	1	0
24	4	3	2	1	0
27	4	3	2	1	0
29	4	3	2	1	0
32	4	3	2	1	0
35	4	3	2	1	0
39	4	3	2	1	0

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, Q_3, Q_2, and Q_1 for <u>Initiating</u> <u>Structure</u>
Index Scores for Three Samples of Leaders

	Sample I (251 B-29 & B-50 AC's)	Sample II (144 RB-47 AC's)	Sample III (64 Educational Administrators)
Q_3	45*	44	41
Q_2	42	41	39
Q_1	39	36	35
Mean	41.6	40.3	37.9
0	4.5	6.1	4.4

*Quartile points rounded to nearest integer

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, Q_3, Q_2, and Q_1 for <u>Consideration</u> Index
Scores for Three Samples of Leaders

	Sample I (251 B-29 & B-50 AC's)	Sample II (144 RB-47 AC's)	Sample III (64 Educational Administrators)
Q_3	46*	51	49
Q_2	42	48	46
Q_1	37	40	42
Mean	41.4	44.8	44.7
0	7.3	8.7	6.0

*Quartile points rounded to nearest integer

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PLEASE ANSWER THIS SIDE FIRST.
PLEASE MARK ALL ANSWERS ON SCANTRON COMPUTER ANSWER SHEET.
PLEASE USE PENCIL TO MARK ALL ANSWERS.

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LBDQ - ATHLETE'S VERSION.

PLEASE PROVIDE THE BEST ANSWER FOR EACH QUESTION.

1. AGE: 16 - 18 _____ (A)
                                   19 - 21 _____ (B)
                                   22 - 24 _____ (C)
                                   25 - 27 _____ (D)
                                   over 28 _____ (E)

2. PRESENT CLASS STATUS: FRESHMAN _____ (A)
                              SOPHOMORE _____ (B)
                              JUNIOR   _____ (C)
                              SENIOR   _____ (D)

3. HOW MANY YEARS HAVE YOU BEEN COMPETING IN SOFTBALL?

                                   0 - 2 _____ (A)
                                   3 - 5 _____ (B)
                                   6 - 8 _____ (C)
                              9 or more _____ (D)

4. HOW MANY YEARS HAVE YOU BEEN COMPETING AT THIS COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY?

                                   0 - 1 _____ (A)
                                       2 _____ (B)
                                       3 _____ (C)
                                       4 _____ (D)
                              5 or more _____ (E)

5. HOW MANY SOFTBALL COACHES HAVE YOU HAD?
    Including Jr. High, H. S., J. C., etc.

                                   0 - 1 _____ (A)
                                   2 - 3 _____ (B)
                                   4 - 5 _____ (C)
                                   6 - 7 _____ (D)
                              8 or more _____ (E)

6. OF THE NUMBER LISTED IN QUESTION 5, HOW MANY WERE MEN?

                                   0 - 1 _____ (A)
                                   2 - 3 _____ (B)
                                   4 - 5 _____ (C)
                                   6 - 7 _____ (D)
                              8 or more _____ (E)

7. OF THE NUMBER LISTED IN QUESTION 5, HOW MANY WERE WOMEN?

                                   0 - 1 _____ (A)
                                   2 - 3 _____ (B)
                                   4 - 5 _____ (C)
                                   6 - 7 _____ (D)
                              8 or more _____ (E)

8. WHAT IS YOUR SPECIALTY: (CHECK ALL THAT APPLY)

$$
\begin{array}{rll}
\text{HITTING} & \underline{\hspace{1.5em}} & \text{(A)} \\
\text{INFIELD} & \underline{\hspace{1.5em}} & \text{(B)} \\
\text{OUTFIELD} & \underline{\hspace{1.5em}} & \text{(C)} \\
\text{PITCHING} & \underline{\hspace{1.5em}} & \text{(D)} \\
\text{MULTIEVENTS} & \underline{\hspace{1.5em}} & \text{(E)}
\end{array}
$$

9. WHICH COACH PRESENTLY WORKS WITH YOU THE MOST IN PREPARING YOU
    TO COMPETE IN YOUR PRESENT SPECIALTY?

        MALE HEAD COACH .....   _____ (A)
        FEMALE HEAD COACH ...   _____ (B)
        MALE ASSISTANT COACH   _____ (C)
        FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH   _____ (D)

IN THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONNAIRE, PLEASE CHOOSE YOUR ANSWERS WITH YOUR
MAIN SPECIALTY COACH IN MIND.

PLEASE MARK ALL YOUR ANSWERS IN THE CORRESPONDING COLUMNS ON THIS SHEET.
DO NOT PUT NAME ON QUESTIONNAIRE.
TAKES ABOUT TWENTY MINUTES TO COMPLETE QUESTIONNAIRE.

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE - ATHLETE'S VERSION

A. Answer each statement with your MAIN SPECIALTY COACH in mind.
B. READ EACH STATEMENT CAREFULLY.
C. THINK about how frequently your MAIN SPECIALTY COACH engages in
    the behavior described by the statement.
D. DECIDE whether your Coach ALWAYS, OFTEN, OCCASIONALLY, SELDOM or
    NEVER acts as described in the statement.
E. IN COLUMNS FOLLOWING STATEMENTS, CIRCLE one of the five letters
    following the statement to show the answer you have selected.

SELECTIONS ARE: (A) = ALWAYS ACTS THIS WAY
                 (B) = OFTEN ACTS THIS WAY
                 (C) = OCCASSIONALLY ACTS THIS WAY
                 (D) = SELDOM ACTS THIS WAY
                 (E) = NEVER ACTS THIS WAY

                                         CIRCLE CORRESPONDING
MY MAIN SPECIALTY COACH: LETTER TO MARK ANSWER

10. Does personal favors for team members.......... A B C D E
11. Makes attitude clear to the team............... A B C D E
12. Does little things to make it pleasant to be a
    member of the team............................ A B C D E
13. Tries out new ideas with the team............. A B C D E
14. Acts as the real leader of the team........... A B C D E
15. Is easy to understand.......................... A B C D E
16. Is strict..................................... A B C D E
17. Finds time to listen to team members.......... A B C D E
18. Criticizes poor work.......................... A B C D E
19. Gives advance notice of changes............... A B C D E
20. Speaks in a manner not to be questioned........ A B C D E

```
21. Keeps to himself/herself...................... A  B  C  D  E
22. Looks out for the personal welfare of
    individual team members....................... A  B  C  D  E
23. Assigns team members to particular tasks....... A  B  C  D  E
24. Is the spokesperson for the team.............. A  B  C  D  E
25. Schedules work to be done...................... A  B  C  D  E
26. Maintains definite standards of performance.... A  B  C  D  E
27. Does not explain own actions................... A  B  C  D  E
28. Keeps the team informed........................ A  B  C  D  E
29. Acts without consulting the team.............. A  B  C  D  E
30. Backs up the members in their actions.......... A  B  C  D  E
31. Emphasizes the meeting of deadlines............ A  B  C  D  E
32. Treats all team members the same............... A  B  C  D  E
33. Encourages the use of uniform procedures....... A  B  C  D  E
34. Gets everything asked for from superiors....... A  B  C  D  E
35. Is willing to make changes..................... A  B  C  D  E
36. Makes sure his/her own part in the organization
    is understood by team members.................. A  B  C  D  E
37. Is friendly and approachable .................. A  B  C  D  E
38. Asks that team members follow standard rules
    and regulations................................ A  B  C  D  E
39. Does not take necessary action................. A  B  C  D  E
40. Makes team members feel at ease when talking
    with them...................................... A  B  C  D  E
41. Lets team members know what is expected
    of them........................................ A  B  C  D  E
42. Speaks of the representative of the team....... A  B  C  D  E
43. Puts suggestions made by the team into
    operation...................................... A  B  C  D  E
44. Sees to it that team members are working
    up to capacity................................. A  B  C  D  E
45. Lets other people lead the team in his/her
    place.......................................... A  B  C  D  E
46. Gets his/her superiors to act for the welfare
    of the team members............................ A  B  C  D  E
47. Gets team approval in important matters
    before going ahead............................. A  B  C  D  E
48. Sees to it that the work of team members
    is coordinated................................. A  B  C  D  E
49. Keeps the team working together as a team...... A  B  C  D  E

    THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!
    Copyright 1988, by The Ohio State University
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APPENDIX 6
COACHES' QUESTIONNAIRE

PLEASE ANSWER THIS SIDE FIRST.
PLEASE MARK ALL ANSWERS ON THE SCANTRON COMPUTERIZED ANSWER SHEET.
PLEASE MARK ALL ANSWERS IN PENCIL.

PLEASE PROVIDE THE BEST ANSWER FOR EACH QUESTION

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LBDQ.

1. AGE   21 - 24 _____ (A)
                                                     25 - 28 _____ (B)
                                                     over 28 _____ (C)

2. PRESENT COACHING STATUS: HEAD COACH (Female)   _____ (A)
                              HEAD COACH (Male)   _____ (B)
                              ASSISTANT COACH (Female)_____ (C)
                              ASSISTANT COACH (Male)   _____ (D)

3. TOTAL NUMBER OF YEARS YOU HAVE BEEN COACHING SOFTBALL:

                                                     0 - 2 _____ (A)
                                                     3 - 5 _____ (B)
                                                     6 - 8 _____ (C)
                                               9 or more _____ (D)

4. TOTAL NUMBER OF YEARS YOU HAVE BEEN COACHING AT THIS COLLEGE/
    UNIVERSITY:

                                                     0 - 2 _____ (A)
                                                     3 - 5 _____ (B)
                                                     6 - 8 _____ (C)
                                               9 or more _____ (D)

5. TOTAL NUMBER OF SOFTBALL COACHES WITH WHOM YOU HAVE COACHED:

                                                     0 - 1 _____ (A)
                                                     2 - 3 _____ (B)
                                                     4 - 5 _____ (C)
                                                     6 - 7 _____ (D)
                                               8 or more _____ (E)

6. OF THE NUMBER LISTED IN QUESTION 5, HOW MANY WERE MEN?

                                                     0 - 1 _____ (A)
                                                     2 - 3 _____ (B)
                                                     4 - 5 _____ (C)
                                                     6 - 7 _____ (D)
                                               8 or more _____ (E)

7. OF THE NUMBER LISTED IN QUESTION 5, HOW MANY WERE WOMEN?

                                                     0 - 1 _____ (A)
                                                     2 - 3 _____ (B)
                                                     4 - 5 _____ (C)
                                                     6 - 7 _____ (D)
                                               8 or more _____ (E)

8. WHAT IS YOUR COACHING SPECIALTY: (CHECK ALL THAT APPLY)

$$\begin{array}{lll}
\text{HITTING} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \text{(A)} \\
\text{INFIELD} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \text{(B)} \\
\text{OUTFIELD} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \text{(C)} \\
\text{PITCHING} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \text{(D)} \\
\text{MULTIEVENTS} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \text{(E)}
\end{array}$$

9. DO YOU WORK WITH:

$$\begin{array}{lll}
\text{WOMEN'S TEAM ONLY?} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \text{(A)} \\
\text{BOTH MEN'S AND WOMEN'S TEAMS?} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \text{(B)}
\end{array}$$

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

PLEASE MARK ANSWERS ON SCANTRON IN PENCIL.
DO NOT PUT NAME ON QUESTIONNAIRE OR SCANTRON.
TAKES ABOUT TWENTY MINUTES TO COMPLETE QUESTIONNAIRE.

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE - COACHING STAFF VERSION

A.   Answer each statement with yourself in mind.
B.   READ EACH STATEMENT CAREFULLY.
C.   THINK about his frequently you engage in the behavior described
     by the statement.
D.   DECIDE whether you ALWAYS, OFTEN, OCCASIONALLY, SELDOM, or NEVER
     act as described by the statement.
E.   ON SCANTRON, FILL IN THE BOX for one of the five letters follow-
     ing the statement to show the answer you have selected.

SELECTIONS ARE: (A) = ALWAYS ACTS THIS WAY
                  (B) = OFTEN ACTS THIS WAY
                  (C) = OCCASIONALLY ACTS THIS WAY
                  (D) = SELDOM ACT THIS WAY
                  (E) = NEVER ACT THIS WAY

AS A COACH I: MARK CORRESPONDING
                                                 BOX ON SCANTRON SHEET

10. Do personal favors for team members............. A   B   C   D   E
11. Clarify my attitude to the team................. A   B   C   D   E
12. Do little things to make it pleasant to be a
    member of the team .... A   B   C   D   E
13. Try out new ideas with the team................. A   B   C   D   E
14. Act as the real leader of the team.............. A   B   C   D   E
15. Am easy to understand........................... A   B   C   D   E
16. Am strict....................................... A   B   C   D   E
17. Find time to listen to team members............. A   B   C   D   E
18. Criticize poor work............................. A   B   C   D   E
19. Give advance notice of changes.................. A   B   C   D   E
20. Speak in a manner not to be questioned.......... A   B   C   D   E
21. Keep to myself.................................. A   B   C   D   E
22. Look out for the personal welfare of
    individual team members........................ A   B   C   D   E
23. Assign team members to particular tasks......... A   B   C   D   E
24. Am the spokesperson for the team................ A   B   C   D   E
25. Schedule work to be done........................ A   B   C   D   E
26. Maintain definite standards of performance...... A   B   C   D   E
27. Do not explain my actions....................... A   B   C   D   E
28. Keep the team informed.......................... A   B   C   D   E
29. Act without consulting the team................. A   B   C   D   E
30. Back up the members in their actions............ A   B   C   D   E
31. Emphasize the meeting of deadlines.............. A   B   C   D   E
32. Treat all the team members the same............. A   B   C   D   E
33. Encourage the use of uniform procedures......... A   B   C   D   E

34. Get everything asked for from superiors........ A B C D E
35. Am willing to make changes.................... A B C D E
36. Make sure my own part in the organization
    is understood by team members................. A B C D E
37. Am friendly and approachable.................. A B C D E
38. Ask the team members follow standard rules
    and regulations............................... A B C D E
39. Do not take necessary action.................. A B C D E
40. Make team members feel at ease when
    talking with them............................. A B C D E
41. Let team members know what is expected
    of them....................................... A B C D E
42. Speak as the representative of the team....... A B C D E
43. Put suggestions made by the team into
    practice...................................... A B C D E
44. See to it that team members are working
    up to capacity................................ A B C D E
45. Allow others to lead the team in my place...... A B C D E
46. Get my superiors to act for the welfare
    of the team members........................... A B C D E
47. Get team approval in important matters
    before going ahead............................ A B C D E
48. See to it that the work of team members
    is coordinated................................ A B C D E
49. Keep the team working together as a team....... A B C D E

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

APPENDIX 7
DEMOGRAPHIC DATA ON PARTICIPATING ATHLETES

FREQUENCY TABLES FOR ATHLETES COMPLETING QUESTIONNAIRE
(N = 223)

VARIABLE	VALUE	PERCENT
AGE		
	16-18	27.8
	19-21	59.2
	22-24	9.9
	25-27	2.7
	OVER 28	0.4
CLASS		
	FRESHMAN	39.0
	SOPHOMORE	26.9
	JUNIOR	15.2
	SENIOR	18.8

TOTAL NUMBER OF YEARS COMPETING IN SOFTBALL

	0-2	14.8
	3-5	22.4
	6-8	40.4
	9 OR MORE	22.4

NUMBER OF YEARS COMPETING AT THIS COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY

	0-1	52.0
	2	24.7
	3	10.3
	4	13.0

TOTAL NUMBER OF SOFTBALL COACHES IN ALL YEARS OF SOFTBALL

	0-1	7.6
	2-3	39.5
	4-5	34.5
	6-7	11.7
	8 OR MORE	6.7

NUMBER OF THESE COACHES THAT WERE MEN

	0-1	19.7
	2-3	52.0
	4-5	22.0
	6-7	3.6
	8 OR MORE	2.2

NUMBER OF THESE COACHES THAT WERE WOMEN

0-1	72.2
2-3	20.6
4-5	6.3
6-7	0.4
8 OR MORE	0.0

PRIMARY POSITION

HITTING	30.5
INFIELD	9.0
OUTFIELD	52.5
PITCHING	5.8
MULTIEVENTS	2.2

WHICH COACH IS YOUR PRIMARY COACH

HEAD COACH	67.7
ASSISTANT COACH	32.3

APPENDIX 8
QUESTIONNAIRE SCORES BY SEX

Percent values for each question by sex

Values: 1=Never; 2=Seldom; 3=Occasionally; 4=Often;
        5=Always

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES

DOES PERSONAL FAVORS FOR THE TEAM

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
1	7.9	9.7
2	14.6	38.9
3	27.8	25.0
4	32.5	15.3
5	16.6	11.1

MAKES ATTITUDE CLEAR TO TEAM

1	1.3	0.0
2	4.0	4.2
3	15.9	9.7
4	33.8	45.8
5	45.0	38.9

DOES LITTLE THINGS TO MAKE PLEASANT TO BE A MEMBER OF THE
TEAM

1	2.6	5.6
2	12.6	4.2
3	29.8	22.2
4	24.5	37.5
5	30.5	29.2

TRIES OUT NEW IDEAS ON THE TEAM

1	1.3	0.0
2	4.6	4.2
3	25.8	36.1
4	33.8	37.5
5	33.1	22.2

ACTS AS THE REAL LEADER OF THE TEAM

1	1.3	2.8
2	7.9	5.6
3	15.9	12.5
4	36.4	16.7
5	37.7	62.5

IS EASY TO UNDERSTAND

1	2.0	0.0
2	11.9	1.4
3	18.5	13.9
4	33.8	40.3
5	33.8	44.4

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
IS STRICT		
1	4.6	4.2
2	15.2	9.7
3	38.4	34.7
4	25.8	38.9
5	15.9	12.5
FINDS TIME TO LISTEN TO TEAM MEMBERS		
1	0.7	1.4
2	7.9	1.4
3	17.2	19.4
4	29.8	33.3
5	44.4	43.1
CRITICIZES POOR WORK		
1	9.3	8.3
2	19.9	12.5
3	27.8	47.2
4	27.8	19.4
5	15.2	11.1
GIVES ADVANCE NOTICE OF CHANGES		
1	5.3	1.4
2	13.2	13.9
3	24.5	26.4
4	36.4	27.8
5	19.2	29.2
SPEAKS IN A MANNER NOT TO BE QUESTIONED		
1	7.9	4.2
2	17.2	12.5
3	27.8	22.2
4	29.8	43.1
5	15.2	15.3
KEEPS TO HIMSELF/HERSELF		
1	4.6	2.8
2	8.6	6.9
3	20.5	22.2
4	40.4	38.9
5	23.2	26.4

| | MALE | FEMALE |
| VALUE | COACHES | COACHES |

LOOKS OUT FOR THE PERSONAL WELFARE OF INDIVIDUAL TEAM
MEMBERS

Value	Male	Female
1	0.7	1.4
2	4.6	0.0
3	17.2	20.8
4	32.5	27.8
5	44.4	45.8

ASSIGNS TEAM MEMBERS TO PARTICULAR TASKS

Value	Male	Female
1	3.3	1.4
2	9.9	6.9
3	27.2	40.3
4	39.1	29.2
5	19.9	20.8

IS THE SPOKESPERSON FOR THE TEAM

Value	Male	Female
1	1.3	0.0
2	11.9	1.4
3	20.5	15.3
4	29.8	22.2
5	35.1	56.9

SCHEDULES WORK TO BE DONE

Value	Male	Female
1	1.3	1.4
2	2.0	1.4
3	5.3	4.2
4	34.4	34.7
5	55.6	56.9

MAINTAINS DEFINITE STANDARDS OF PERFORMANCE

Value	Male	Female
1	2.0	0.0
2	4.0	2.8
3	17.2	19.4
4	37.7	38.9
5	37.7	38.9

DOES NOT EXPLAIN OWN ACTS

Value	Male	Female
1	4.6	8.3
2	13.9	8.3
3	21.9	26.4
4	40.4	34.7
5	17.2	22.2

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES

KEEPS THE TEAM INFORMED

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
1	1.3	2.8
2	6.0	4.2
3	11.9	12.5
4	41.7	48.6
5	39.1	31.9

ACTS WITHOUT CONSULTING THE TEAM

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
1	2.6	4.2
2	13.9	15.3
3	22.5	22.2
4	37.7	41.7
5	21.9	13.9

BACKS UP MEMBERS IN THEIR ACTIONS

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
1	0.7	1.4
2	5.3	2.8
3	33.8	26.4
4	35.1	47.2
5	23.2	19.4

EMPHASIZES THE MEETING OF SCHEDULES

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
1	2.0	1.4
2	6.6	4.2
3	27.8	16.7
4	33.8	31.9
5	27.2	44.4

TREATS ALL TEAM MEMBERS TO SAME

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
1	7.3	2.8
2	15.9	8.3
3	27.8	18.1
4	21.9	40.3
5	26.5	27.8

ENCOURAGES THE USE OF UNIFORM PRACTICES

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
1	4.6	1.4
2	4.6	2.8
3	23.8	23.6
4	40.4	27.8
5	23.8	41.7

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES

GETS EVERYTHING ASKED FOR FROM SUPERIORS

1	7.3	4.2
2	14.6	43.1
3	33.1	23.6
4	27.2	20.8
5	11.3	4.2

IS WILLING TO MAKE CHANGES

1	2.0	0.0
2	4.0	4.2
3	23.2	19.4
4	36.4	56.9
5	34.4	19.4

MAKES SURE HIS/HER OWN PART IN THE ORGANIZATION IS UNDERSTOOD BY TEAM MEMBERS

1	0.7	1.4
2	4.0	1.4
3	15.9	6.9
4	35.8	43.1
5	43.0	47.2

IF FRIENDLY AND APPROACHABLE

1	0.7	1.4
2	5.3	1.4
3	10.6	16.7
4	29.8	25.0
5	53.6	55.6

ASKS THAT TEAM MEMBERS FOLLOW STANDARD RULES AND REGULATIONS

1	1.3	0.0
2	2.0	4.2
3	9.3	12.5
4	37.7	33.3
5	48.3	50.0

DOES NOT TAKE NECESSARY ACTION

1	27.2	43.1
2	30.5	37.5
3	21.9	8.3
4	10.6	4.2
5	4.6	5.6

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES

MAKES TEAM MEMBERS FEEL AT EASE WHEN TALKING TO THEM

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
1	1.3	1.4
2	7.3	4.2
3	19.9	16.7
4	26.5	16.7
5	43.7	59.7

LETS TEAM MEMBERS KNOW WHAT IS EXPECTED OF THEM

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
1	1.3	0.0
2	2.6	0.0
3	11.3	9.7
4	33.8	31.9
5	49.7	56.9

SPEAKS AS THE REPRESENTATIVE OF THE TEAM

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
1	2.0	0.0
2	6.0	1.4
3	17.9	9.7
4	29.1	33.3
5	41.1	54.2

PUTS SUGGESTIONS MADE BY THE TEAM INTO OPERATION

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
1	0.7	2.8
2	6.6	5.6
3	23.2	25.0
4	47.0	37.5
5	21.9	22.2

SEES TO IT THAT THE TEAM MEMBERS ARE WORKING UP TO CAPACITY

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
1	1.3	0.0
2	2.0	2.8
3	18.5	8.3
4	37.7	45.8
5	35.1	37.5

LET'S OTHER PEOPLE LEAD THE TEAM IN HIS/HER PLACE

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
1	4.6	8.3
2	19.2	11.1
3	30.5	29.2
4	21.9	37.5
5	17.9	9.7

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES

GETS HIS/HER SUPERIORS TO ACT FOR THE WELFARE OF THE TEAM
MEMBERS

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
1	1.3	5.6
2	10.6	9.7
3	21.9	29.2
4	31.8	25.0
5	21.2	18.1

GETS TEAM APPROVAL IN IMPORTANT MATTERS BEFORE GOING
AHEAD

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
1	0.0	2.8
2	7.9	12.5
3	25.2	12.5
4	33.1	41.7
5	19.9	18.1

SEES TO IT THAT THE WORK OF TEAM MEMBERS IS COORDINATED

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
1	1.3	2.8
2	2.6	2.8
3	13.9	8.3
4	42.4	51.4
5	27.8	23.6

KEEPS THE TEAM WORKING TOGETHER AS A TEAM

VALUE	MALE COACHES	FEMALE COACHES
1	1.3	0.0
2	3.3	1.4
3	12.6	5.6
4	35.1	31.9
5	31.8	44.4

APPENDIX 9
QUESTIONNAIRE SCORES BY COACHING POSITION

Percent scores for each question for Head Coaches versus
Assistant Coaches

Values: 1=Never; 2=Seldom; 3=Occasionally; 4=Often;
        5=Always

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES
DOES PERSONAL FAVORS FOR TEAM MEMBERS		
1	6.6	12.5
2	22.5	22.5
3	31.1	18.1
4	23.8	33.3
5	15.2	13.9
MAKES ATTITUDE CLEAR THE THE TEAM		
1	0.0	2.8
2	2.6	6.9
3	13.9	13.9
4	37.1	38.9
5	45.7	37.5
DOES LITTLE THINGS TO MAKE IT PLEASANT TO BE A MEMBER OF THE TEAM		
1	4.0	2.8
2	10.6	8.3
3	29.1	23.6
4	25.8	34.7
5	29.8	30.6
TRIES OUT NEW IDEAS WITH THE TEAM		
1	0.7	1.4
2	3.3	6.9
3	12.6	34.7
4	38.4	27.8
5	29.8	29.2
ACTS AS THE REAL LEADER OF THE TEAM		
1	1.3	2.8
2	4.0	13.9
3	12.6	19.4
4	29.8	30.6
5	51.7	33.3

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES
IS EASY TO UNDERSTAND		
1	1.3	1.4
2	9.3	6.9
3	17.2	16.7
4	39.1	29.2
5	33.1	45.8
IS STRICT		
1	2.6	0.0
2	9.3	22.2
3	38.4	34.7
4	35.1	19.4
5	14.6	15.3
FINDS TIME TO LISTEN TO TEAM MEMBERS		
1	1.3	0.0
2	6.6	4.2
3	19.2	15.3
4	32.5	27.8
5	39.7	52.8
CRITICIZES POOR WORK		
1	7.9	11.1
2	17.9	16.7
3	37.1	27.8
4	23.8	27.8
5	12.6	16.7
GIVES ADVANCE NOTICE OF CHANGE		
1	4.0	4.2
2	14.6	11.1
3	25.8	23.6
4	34.4	31.9
5	19.9	27.8
SPEAKS IN A MANNER NOT TO BE QUESTIONED		
1	4.6	11.1
2	14.6	18.1
3	27.2	23.6
4	37.1	27.8
5	15.2	15.3

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES

KEEPS TO HIMSELF/HERSELF

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES
1	4.0	4.2
2	7.3	9.7
3	23.2	16.7
4	43.0	33.3
5	20.5	31.9

LOOKS OUT FOR THE PERSONAL WELFARE OF INDIVIDUAL TEAM MEMBERS

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES
1	0.7	1.4
2	2.6	4.2
3	19.2	16.7
4	32.5	27.8
5	42.4	50.0

ASSIGNS TEAM MEMBERS TO PARTICULAR TASKS

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES
1	2.6	2.8
2	7.3	12.5
3	33.1	27.8
4	37.1	33.3
5	18.5	23.6

IS THE SPOKESPERSON FOR THE TEAM

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES
1	0.0	2.8
2	4.0	18.1
3	15.2	26.4
4	26.5	29.2
5	51.7	22.2

SCHEDULES WORK TO BE DONE

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES
1	0.7	2.8
2	1.3	2.8
3	4.0	6.9
4	31.8	40.3
5	60.9	45.8

MAINTAINS DEFINITE STANDARDS OF PERFORMANCE

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES
1	0.7	2.8
2	3.3	4.2
3	16.6	20.8
4	37.7	38.9
5	41.7	30.6

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES
DOES NOT EXPLAIN OWN ACTIONS		
1	5.3	6.9
2	10.6	15.3
3	26.5	16.7
4	35.8	44.4
5	20.5	15.3
KEEPS THE TEAM INFORMED		
1	2.0	1.4
2	4.0	8.3
3	12.6	11.1
4	43.0	45.8
5	38.4	33.3
ACTS WITHOUT CONSULTING THE TEAM		
1	4.0	1.4
2	14.6	13.9
3	26.5	13.9
4	36.4	44.4
5	16.6	25.0
BACKS UP THE MEMBERS IN THEIR ACTIONS		
1	0.7	1.4
2	2.6	8.3
3	31.8	30.6
4	42.4	31.9
5	19.9	26.4
EMPHASIZES THE MEETING OF DEADLINES		
1	1.4	2.8
2	4.0	9.7
3	25.8	20.8
4	31.8	36.1
5	35.1	27.8
TREATS ALL TEAM MEMBERS THE SAME		
1	5.3	6.9
2	9.9	20.8
3	23.2	27.8
4	33.8	15.3
5	25.8	29.2

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES

ENCOURAGES THE USE OF UNIFORM PROCEDURES

1	0.7	9.7
2	3.3	5.6
3	20.5	30.6
4	36.4	36.1
5	37.1	13.9

GETS EVERYTHING ASKED FOR FROM SUPERIORS

1	6.0	6.9
2	23.8	23.6
3	31.8	26.4
4	25.2	25.0
5	6.0	15.3

IS WILLING TO MAKE CHANGES

1	1.3	1.4
2	3.3	5.6
3	23.8	18.1
4	45.0	38.9
5	26.5	36.1

MAKES SURE HIS/HER PART IN THE ORGANIZATION IS UNDERSTOOD BY TEAM MEMBERS

1	1.3	0.0
2	2.0	5.6
3	11.9	15.3
4	39.1	36.1
5	45.0	43.1

IS FRIENDLY AND APPROACHABLE

1	0.7	1.4
2	5.3	1.4
3	11.9	13.9
4	29.8	25.0
5	52.3	58.3

ASKS THAT TEAM MEMBERS FOLLOW STANDARD RULES AND REGULATIONS

1	0.7	1.4
2	2.0	4.2
3	8.6	13.9
4	37.1	34.7
5	51.0	44.4

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES

DOES NOT TAKE NECESSARY ACTION

1	36.4	23.6
2	25.2	48.6
3	19.2	13.9
4	8.6	8.3
5	6.0	2.8

MAKES TEAM MEMBERS FEEL AT EASE WHEN TALKING TO THEM

1	1.3	1.4
2	7.3	4.2
3	20.5	15.3
4	19.9	30.6
5	49.7	47.2

LETS TEAM MEMBERS KNOW WHAT IS EXPECTED OF THEM

1	0.7	1.4
2	2.0	1.4
3	11.3	9.7
4	34.4	30.6
5	50.3	55.6

SPEAKS AS THE REPRESENTATIVE OF THE TEAM

1	0.0	4.2
2	3.3	6.9
3	10.6	25.0
4	27.8	36.1
5	55.0	25.0

PUTS SUGGESTIONS MADE BY THE TEAM INTO OPERATION

1	1.3	1.4
2	7.3	4.2
3	27.2	16.7
4	42.4	47.2
5	19.9	26.4

SEES TO IT THAT TEAM MEMBERS ARE WORKING UP TO CAPACITY

1	0.0	2.8
2	2.6	1.4
3	16.6	12.5
4	41.7	37.5
5	35.8	36.1

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES

LETS OTHER PEOPLE LEAD THE TEAM IN HIS/HER PLACE

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES
1	7.3	2.8
2	16.6	16.7
3	33.1	23.6
4	29.1	22.2
5	13.2	19.4

GETS HIS/HER SUPERIORS TO ACT FOR THE WELFARE OF THE TEAM MEMBERS

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES
1	3.3	1.4
2	10.6	9.7
3	27.2	18.1
4	28.5	31.9
5	17.2	26.4

GETS TEAM APPROVAL IN IMPORTANT MATTERS BEFORE GOING AHEAD

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES
1	1.3	0.0
2	11.3	5.6
3	19.9	23.6
4	35.8	36.1
5	19.2	19.4

SEES TO IT THAT THE WORK OF TEAM MEMBERS IS COORDINATED

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES
1	1.3	2.8
2	2.6	2.8
3	13.9	8.3
4	45.7	44.4
5	26.5	26.4

KEEPS THE TEAM WORKING TOGETHER AS A TEAM

VALUE	HEAD COACHES	ASSISTANT COACHES
1	1.3	0.0
2	2.0	4.2
3	11.9	6.9
4	34.4	33.3
5	37.1	33.3

APPENDIX 10
QUESTIONNAIRE SCORES BY SEX AND POSITION

Percent values for each question for each coaching
category

Values: 1=Never; 2=Seldom; 3=Occasionally; 4=Often;
5=Always

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
DOES PERSONAL FAVORS FOR TEAM MEMBERS				
1	3.3	11.9	15.3	0.0
2	12.0	39.0	18.6	38.5
3	37.0	22.0	13.6	28.5
4	28.3	16.9	39.0	7.7
5	18.5	10.2	13.6	15.4
MAKES ATTITUDE CLEAR TO THE TEAM				
1	0.0	0.0	3.4	0.0
2	2.2	3.4	6.8	7.7
3	16.3	10.2	15.3	7.7
4	32.5	44.1	35.6	53.8
5	48.9	40.7	39.0	30.8
DOES LITTLE THINGS TO MAKE IT PLEASANT TO BE A MEMBER OF THE TEAM				
1	2.2	6.8	3.4	0.0
2	15.2	3.4	8.5	7.7
3	33.7	22.0	23.7	23.1
4	15.2	42.4	39.0	15.4
5	33.7	23.7	25.4	53.8
TRIES OUT NEW IDEAS ON THE TEAM				
1	1.1	0.0	1.7	0.0
2	3.3	3.4	6.8	7.7
3	23.9	30.5	28.8	61.5
4	35.9	42.4	30.5	15.4
5	33.7	23.7	32.2	15.4
ACTS AS THE REAL LEADER OF THE TEAM				
1	0.0	3.4	3.4	0.0
2	5.4	1.7	11.9	23.1
3	14.1	10.2	18.6	23.1
4	40.2	13.6	30.5	30.8
5	39.1	71.2	35.6	23.1
IS EASY TO UNDERSTAND				
1	2.2	0.0	1.7	0.0
2	14.1	1.7	8.5	0.0
3	18.5	15.3	18.6	7.7
4	35.9	44.1	30.5	23.1
5	29.3	39.0	40.7	69.2

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
IS STRICT				
1	1.1	5.1	10.2	0.0
2	9.8	8.5	23.7	15.4
3	42.4	32.2	32.2	46.2
4	31.5	40.7	16.9	30.8
5	15.2	13.6	16.9	7.7
FINDS TIME TO LISTEN TO TEAM MEMBERS				
1	1.1	1.7	0.0	0.0
2	9.8	1.7	5.1	0.0
3	17.4	22.0	16.9	7.7
4	30.4	35.6	28.8	23.1
5	41.3	37.3	49.2	69.2
CRITICIZES POOR WORK				
1	7.6	8.5	11.9	7.7
2	19.6	15.3	20.3	0.0
3	32.6	44.1	20.3	61.5
4	27.2	18.6	28.8	23.1
5	13.0	11.9	18.6	7.7
GIVES ADVANCE NOTICE OF CHANGES				
1	5.4	1.7	5.1	0.0
2	14.1	15.3	11.9	7.7
3	26.1	25.4	22.0	30.8
4	38.0	28.8	33.9	23.1
5	15.2	27.1	25.4	38.5
SPEAKS IN A MANNER NOT TO BE QUESTIONED				
1	4.3	5.1	13.6	0.0
2	15.2	13.6	20.3	7.7
3	33.7	16.9	18.6	46.2
4	30.4	47.5	28.8	23.1
5	15.2	15.3	15.3	15.4
KEEPS TO HIMSELF/HERSELF				
1	4.3	3.4	5.1	0.0
2	7.6	6.8	10.2	7.7
3	22.8	23.7	16.9	15.4
4	44.6	40.7	33.9	30.8
5	18.5	23.7	30.5	38.5

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH

LOOKS OUT FOR THE PERSONAL WELFARE OF INDIVIDUAL TEAM MEMBERS

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
1	0.0	1.7	1.7	0.0
2	4.3	0.0	5.1	0.0
3	18.5	20.3	15.3	23.1
4	37.0	25.4	25.4	38.5
5	39.1	47.5	52.5	38.5

ASSIGNS TEAM MEMBERS TO PARTICULAR TASKS

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
1	3.3	1.7	3.4	0.0
2	7.6	6.8	13.6	7.7
3	29.3	39.0	23.7	46.2
4	40.2	32.2	37.3	15.4
5	18.5	18.6	22.0	30.8

IS THE SPOKESPERSON FOR THE TEAM

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
1	0.0	0.0	3.4	0.0
2	5.4	1.7	22.0	0.0
3	17.4	11.9	25.4	30.8
4	32.6	16.9	25.4	46.2
5	42.4	66.1	23.7	15.4

SCHEDULES WORK TO BE DONE

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
1	0.0	1.7	3.4	0.0
2	1.1	1.7	3.4	0.0
3	5.4	1.7	5.1	15.4
4	31.5	32.2	39.0	46.2
5	60.9	61.0	47.5	38.5

MAINTAINS DEFINITE STANDARDS OF PERFORMANCE

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
1	1.1	0.0	3.4	0.0
2	4.3	1.7	3.4	7.7
3	17.4	15.3	16.9	38.5
4	38.0	37.3	37.3	46.2
5	39.1	45.8	35.6	7.7

DOES NOT EXPLAIN OWN ACTIONS

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
1	3.3	8.5	6.8	7.7
2	13.0	6.8	15.3	15.4
3	25.0	28.8	16.9	15.4
4	40.2	28.8	40.7	61.5
5	16.3	27.1	18.6	0.0

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
KEEPS THE TEAM INFORMED				
1	1.1	3.4	1.7	0.0
2	4.3	3.4	8.5	7.7
3	13.0	11.9	10.2	15.4
4	40.2	47.5	44.1	53.8
5	41.3	33.9	35.6	23.1
ACTS WITHOUT CONSULTING THE TEAM				
1	3.3	5.1	1.7	0.0
2	15.2	13.6	11.9	23.1
3	26.1	27.1	16.9	0.0
4	34.8	39.0	42.4	53.8
5	18.5	13.6	27.1	15.4
BACKS UP MEMBERS IN THEIR ACTIONS				
1	0.0	1.7	1.7	0.0
2	3.3	1.7	8.5	7.7
3	33.7	28.8	33.9	15.4
4	40.2	45.8	27.1	53.8
5	20.7	18.6	27.1	23.1
EMPHASIZES THE MEETING OF DEADLINES				
1	1.1	1.7	3.4	0.0
2	4.3	3.4	10.2	7.7
3	30.4	18.6	23.7	7.7
4	35.9	25.4	30.5	61.5
5	26.1	49.2	28.8	23.1
TREATS ALL TEAM MEMBERS THE SAME				
1	6.5	3.4	8.5	0.0
2	12.0	6.8	22.0	15.4
3	29.3	13.6	25.4	38.5
4	28.3	42.4	11.9	30.8
5	22.8	30.5	32.2	30.8
ENCOURAGES THE USE OF UNIFORM PROCEDURES				
1	0.0	1.7	11.9	0.0
2	3.3	3.4	6.8	0.0
3	19.6	22.0	30.5	30.8
4	45.7	22.0	32.2	53.8
5	29.3	49.2	15.3	7.7

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH

GETS EVERYTHING ASKED FOR FROM SUPERIORS

1	6.5	5.1	8.5	0.0
2	10.9	44.1	20.3	38.5
3	38.0	22.0	25.4	30.8
4	28.3	20.3	25.4	23.1
5	7.6	3.4	16.9	7.7

IS WILLING TO MAKE CHANGES

1	2.2	0.0	1.7	0.0
2	2.2	5.1	6.8	0.0
3	27.2	18.6	16.9	23.1
4	37.0	57.6	35.6	53.8
5	31.5	18.6	39.0	23.1

MAKES SURE HIS/HER OWN PART IN THE ORGANIZATION IS
UNDERSTOOD BY TEAM MEMBERS

1	1.1	1.7	0.0	0.0
2	3.3	0.0	5.1	7.7
3	16.3	5.1	15.3	15.4
4	37.0	42.4	33.9	46.2
5	41.3	50.8	45.8	30.8

IS FRIENDLY AND APPROACHABLE

1	0.0	1.7	1.7	0.0
2	7.6	1.7	1.7	0.0
3	9.8	15.3	11.9	23.1
4	30.4	28.8	28.8	7.7
5	52.2	52.5	55.9	69.2

ASKS THAT TEAM MEMBERS FOLLOW STANDARD RULES AND
REGULATIONS

1	1.1	0.0	1.7	0.0
2	0.0	5.1	5.1	0.0
3	7.6	10.2	11.9	23.1
4	40.2	32.2	33.9	38.5
5	50.0	52.5	45.8	38.5

DOES NOT TAKE NECESSARY ACTION

1	28.3	49.2	25.4	15.4
2	21.7	30.5	44.1	69.2
3	26.1	8.5	15.3	7.7
4	12.0	3.4	8.5	7.7
5	5.4	6.8	3.4	0.0

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH

MAKES TEAM MEMBERS FEEL AT EASE WHEN TALKING TO THEM

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
1	1.1	1.7	1.7	0.0
2	9.8	3.4	3.4	7.7
3	21.7	18.6	16.9	7.7
4	23.9	13.6	30.5	30.8
5	42.4	61.0	45.8	53.8

LETS TEAM MEMBERS KNOW WHAT IS EXPECTED OF THEM

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
1	1.1	0.0	1.7	0.0
2	3.3	0.0	1.7	0.0
3	14.1	6.8	6.8	23.1
4	31.5	39.0	37.3	0.0
5	48.9	52.5	50.8	76.9

SPEAKS AS THE REPRESENTATIVE OF THE TEAM

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
1	0.0	0.0	5.1	0.0
2	4.3	1.7	8.5	0.0
3	12.0	8.5	27.1	15.4
4	28.3	27.1	30.5	61.5
5	51.1	61.0	25.4	23.1

PUTS SUGGESTIONS MADE BY THE TEAM INTO OPERATION

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
1	0.0	3.4	1.7	0.0
2	8.7	5.1	3.4	7.7
3	26.1	28.8	18.6	7.7
4	45.7	37.3	49.2	38.5
5	19.6	20.3	25.4	30.8

SEES TO IT THAT TEAM MEMBERS ARE WORKING UP TO CAPACITY

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
1	0.0	0.0	3.4	0.0
2	2.2	3.4	1.7	0.0
3	23.9	5.1	10.2	23.1
4	38.0	47.5	37.3	38.5
5	31.5	42.4	40.7	15.4

LETS OTHER PEOPLE LEAD THE TEAM IN HIS/HER PLACE

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
1	5.4	10.2	3.4	0.0
2	20.7	10.2	16.9	15.4
3	33.7	32.2	25.4	15.4
4	23.9	37.3	18.6	38.5
5	15.2	10.2	22.0	7.7

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH

GETS HIS/HER SUPERIORS TO ACT FOR THE WELFARE OF THE TEAM MEMBERS

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
1	1.1	6.8	1.7	0.0
2	10.9	10.2	10.2	7.7
3	23.9	32.2	18.6	15.4
4	29.3	27.1	35.6	15.4
5	19.6	13.6	23.7	38.5

GETS TEAM APPROVAL IN IMPORTANT MATTERS BEFORE GOING AHEAD

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
1	0.0	3.4	0.0	0.0
2	9.8	13.6	5.1	7.7
3	25.0	11.9	25.4	15.4
4	32.6	40.7	33.9	46.2
5	19.6	18.6	20.3	15.4

SEES TO IT THAT THE WORK OF THE TEAM MEMBERS IS COORDINATED

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
1	1.1	1.7	1.7	7.7
2	2.2	3.4	3.4	0.0
3	17.4	8.5	8.5	7.7
4	40.2	54.2	45.8	38.5
5	27.2	25.4	28.8	15.4

KEEPS THE TEAM WORKING TOGETHER AS A TEAM

VALUE	MALE HEAD COACH	FEMALE HEAD COACH	MALE ASSISTANT COACH	FEMALE ASSISTANT COACH
1	2.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
2	2.2	1.7	5.1	0.0
3	16.3	5.1	6.8	7.7
4	35.9	32.2	33.9	30.8
5	29.3	49.2	35.6	23.1

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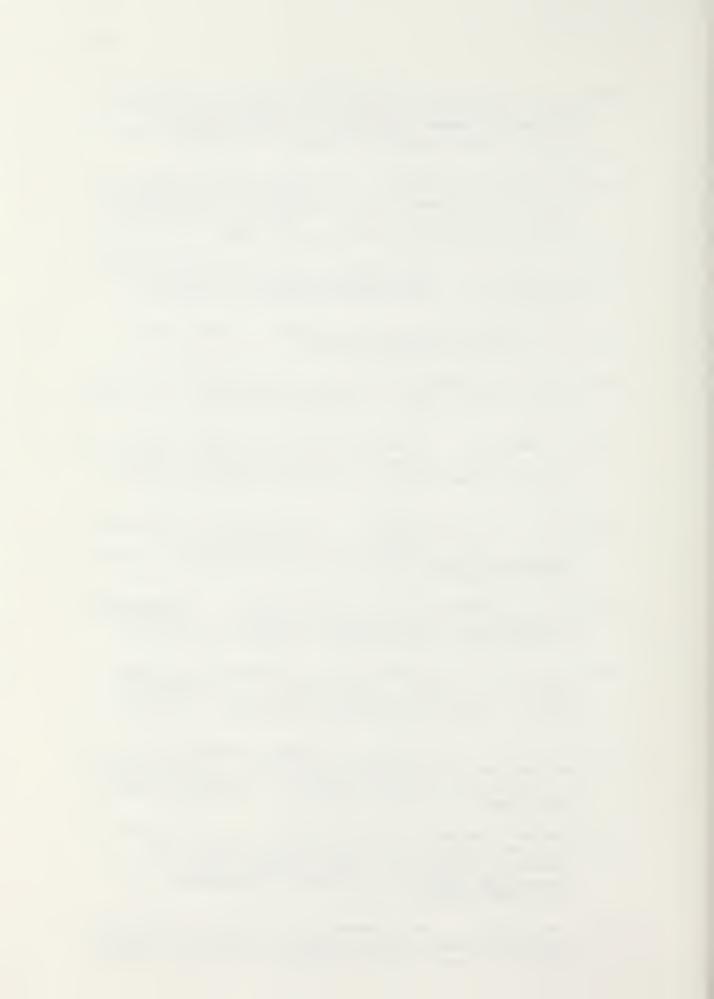   North Carolina at Greensboro. 1990.

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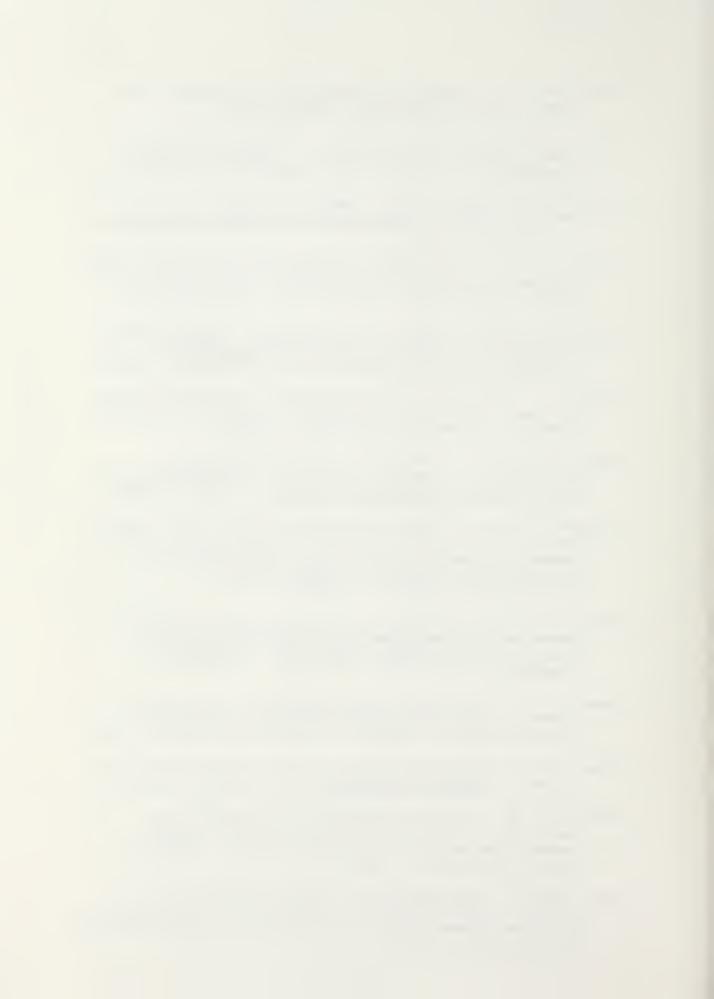   University of Maryland. 1955.

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